ALAGAPPA UNIVERSITY

[ACCREDITED WITH 'A+' Grade by NAAC (CGPA:3.64) in the Third Cycle and Graded as Category-I University by MHRD-UGC]
(A State University Established by the Government of Tamilnadu)

KARAIKUDI – 630 003

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

M.A. SOCIOLOGY,

IV SEMESTER

34943 A - URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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SYLLABI – BOOK MAPPING TABLE
34943 A - URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

BLOCK I: URBAN COMMUNITY: MEANING, CHARACTERISTICS, CITY - MEANING, CLASSIFICATION, URBANIZATION & URBANISM

UNIT I URBAN COMMUNITY: MEANING, CHARACTERISTICS, RURAL URBAN LINKAGES AND CONTRAST

Structure

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The World is urbanizing very fast and more than 45 per cent of the World's population today is residing in urban areas. According to UN estimation, the Wold population is expected to increase by 72 percent by 2050, from 3.6 billion in 2011 to 6.3 billion in 2050.Customarily urbanization means increasing population living in cities and suburbs cities of a country. In 19th and 20th century, majority of the cities in the world are undergoing growth of urban population. In India also urban population which was 0.37 percent in 1951 has risen to 27.81 percent in 2001 and 31.16 percent in 2011 and is increasing day by day. According to Asian Development Bank, the national increase and net migration are the major contributory factors to urban growth. The share of world's population living in urban areas has increased from 39 percent in 1980 to 48 percent in 2000. However, urbanization without proper planning has given rise to several problems such as housing, sanitation, education, provision of safe drinking water, unemployment, etc. particularly in underdeveloped countries. This unit on "Urban Community : Meaning and Characteristics " will provide you information and knowledge regarding Urban Community, its trends, impact and idea about sustainable urban development. After reading this unit, you will be able to:

• Explain meaning and Characteristics of Urban

- Narrate various causes of urbanization
- Discuss Rural and Urban Linkages and Contrast
- Describe about Urban Community

1.1 URBAN COMMUNITY

Urban community is something which an individual thought as, an area with high density of population, an area with the availability of basic requirements, an area of good resources, the area has lots of opportunity of employment and such an area which can be considered as life-giving for luxurious desires of human or individual. The word urban community has many meanings, the term ‘community’, only, denotes two conditions: (1) Physical condition and (2) Social condition.

1.1.1 MEANING

Urban and Urbane are both derived from the Latin word Urbanus meaning "belonging to a city" and these were once synonymous in meaning. Urbane was borrowed first, from the old French term urbain, and it preserves the French pattern of stress. Subsequently, Urban was borrowed directly from Latin word urbanus. Urbane conveys the meaning of being "specialized, refined, polite or elegant". These desirable qualities were considered to be the characteristic of urban rather than country folk. Urban refers to a city or town, which is directly opposite to village or country. A resident of a village is known as a folk and of a city is known as an Urbanite.

1.1.2 CHARACTERISTICS

Definition of urban area: In the Census of India 201 1, the definition of urban area adopted is as follows: a) All statutory places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee, etc.; b) A place satisfying the following criteria: Population is more than 5000. 75% of the male population engaged in non-agricultural occupations. A density of population of at least 400 per sq. km.

Keeping the above criterion of 'urban area' in mind, urbanisation, in general, can be defined as the from a rural society to an urban society. It involves an increase in the number of people in urban areas during a particular year or period. It is the outcome of social, economic and political developments that lead to urban concentration and growth of large cities, changes in land use and transformation from rural to metropolitan pattern of organisation and governance. It has been viewed as an important factor in the areas of economic transformation, orchestrating the breakdown of the feudal order and talung societies to higher levels of social formation. Urbanisation is intrinsically connected and irrevocably enlaced with the development process, as an essential strand in the contemporary economic system. At the same time, some scholars argue that 'urbanisation is not merely the concomitant of industrialisation but a concomitant of whole gamut of factors underlying the

process of economic growth and social change'.

Urbanisation implies a cultural, social and psychological pmss whereby people acquire the material and non-material culture, including behavioural patterns, forms of organization, and ideas that originated in or are distinctive of the city. Although the flow of cultural influences takes place in both the directions -towards and away from the city -there is substantial agreement that the cultural influences exerted by the city on non-urban people are probably more pervasive than the reverse.

Urbanisation as a structural process of change is generally related to industrialisation. Urbanisation results, due to: a) the concentration of large-scale and small- scale industries, and commercial, financial and administrative set-ups in the particular areas called townslcities; and b) technological development in transport and communication, cultural and recreational activities. In fact, the excess of urbanization over industrialization that makes it possible to provide employment for all persons coming to urban areas is what sometimes leads to over-urbanisation. Nevertheless, it is not essential that an industrialised area should necessarily grow into an urbanised area, though industrialisation is an important factor that promotes urbanisation. Urbanisation is otherwise called urban development.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of Urban Community

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2. Define : Urban Area ?

1.1.3 RURAL AND URBAN LINKAGES AND CONTRAST

Rural-urban linkages are both a cause and a consequence of socio-economic development. Though there is a vast volume of literature on this subject, there are quite a few gaps in our knowledge about the effects that rural-urban linkages have on socio-economic development and the factors that affect such linkages. This study seeks to explore the relationship between rural-urban linkages and socio-economic development through a case study of two villages in Gujarat, a relatively welldeveloped village from Anand district and a relatively under-developed village from Kheda district. A sample of 50

households was randomly selected from each of the two selected villages for detailed study and analysis.

Findings of the study revealed that most of the farmers in the developed village grow commercial crops while in the under-developed village they still continue to grow traditional crops. The average total income of the farmers in the developed village was significantly higher than that of their counterparts in the under-developed village. As regards expenditure, people in the developed village spent more on almost all nonfood items as compared to their counterparts in the under-developed village. And, in general, total employment per household from agricultural and non-agricultural activities was more in the developed village than in the under-developed village. From the regression analysis done, it was observed that stronger rural urban linkages has facilitated the use of agricultural inputs such as fertilisers and pesticides and this had a positive bearing on the per capita income of the farming community. Furthermore, the basic infrastructural facilities like roads, bank, and post office together contributed significantly to the higher level of economic growth and per capita income in the developed village. The tests of equality of means revealed that there was a significant difference between the means of most of the variables relating to the land owning category while landless people in both the sample villages were not affected by the developmental status of the village. The study supports the general observation that while over time the rich are getting richer, the poor remain poor or even becoming poorer in the country. Also, it was revealed that weak rural-urban linkages in the underdeveloped area is the result of, inter alia, poor infrastructural facilities and the opposite seems true for developed area.

1.2 LET US SUM UP

In this unit you studied the meaning and definition of urban social structure. ou also learnt about main features of urban life as identified by scholars of urban areas in developed societies. In the Indian setting, it was pointed out that the basic institutions of family, marriage, kinship and caste continue to form the important elements of urban social structure. Then you briefly looked at the nature of politics in urban areas and finally at some of the urban issues in India.

1.3 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Urban Community
2. Define the Urban Area

1.4 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Urban community is something which an individual thought as, an area with high density of population, an area with the availability of basic requirements, an area of good resources, the area has lots of opportunity of employment and such an area

which can be considered as life-giving for luxurious desires of human or individual. The word urban community has many meanings, the term 'community', only, denotes two conditions: (1) Physical condition and (2) Social condition.

2. Definition of urban area: In the Census of India 201 1, the definition of urban area adopted is as follows: a) All statutory places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee, etc.; b) A place satisfying the following criteria: Population is more than 5000. 75% of the male population engaged in non-agricultural occupations. A density of population of at least 400 per sq. km.

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UNIT II CITY - MEANING, CLASSIFICATION, TRENDS IN URBANIZATION PROCESS

Structure

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Cities have challenged human imagination ever since they came into existence. From the smallest to the largest, the earliest to the latest, cities have been the greatest points of concentration of humans and their social relationships. We wish to enquire about the Indian experience of urbanism. We shall begin with a study of the origin of urban centres. 'This will be followed by brief descriptions of cities in ancient, medieval and modern India. Urban centres emerged in ancient lndia around 2500 BC.

The impressive ruins of cities like Harappa and Mohenjodaro are a mute testimony to this remarkable development. However, we have not been able to decipher their script. So, our understanding of the structure of urbanism is limited. We do not know whether the rulers of Harappa were traders, priests or warriors. That is why we intend to take up the study of a city from the sixth century BC usually referred to as the period of second urbanization.

For the study of city in ancient lndia we shall focus on Ujjain, a city located in the state presently known as Madhya Pradesh. This will be followed by a case study of Shahjahanabad i.e., old Delhi. For the modern period we shall study the structure of the city of Kolkata, the modern capital of West Bengal. These case studies are presented to show the similarities as well as the dissimilarities in their structure.

2.1 CITY

Since the mid-nineteenth century, cities have been naturally associated with modernity. Indeed, the main prisms through which the making of the 'modern' has been viewed – whether it is industrial capitalism, bureaucratic rationality or 'governmentality' – have frequently focused on the city as a primary site.

It is a matter of considerable debate among historians as to whether

colonialism was instrumental in introducing 'modernity' to the Indian subcontinent, as colonial authorities themselves often claimed. Was Indian society imprisoned in 'tradition' until the beginning of colonial rule? The term 'modernity' may be said to refer not only to some material changes, i.e. industrial or print capitalism, or systems of sewage and sanitation, but also to new institutional spaces, such as museums, public libraries, and voluntary associations, as well as to new sensibilities, of individualism and bureaucratic rationality. The cities were among the earliest spaces within which these changes and transformations were made most visible and this Unit considers the colonial city from the perspective of whether or why it merits the term 'modern'. To begin with, let us consider the ways in which cities and modernity are usually linked.for some 19th century observers like Friedrich Engels and Alexis de Tocqueville, the 'shock cities' of Britain's first industrial revolution symbolised the emergence of a modern economic order geared to the capitalist market and its attendant social consequences:the separation of the home and the workplace, the segregation of classes and the abysmalliving conditions of the poor.

By the turn of the twentieth century, there emerged other kinds of association betweenmodernity and the city. The spectacular capital cities of Western Europe such as London,Paris, Berlin, Vienna and Stockholm and New York in the USA – stood forth as symbolsof urban modernity. Many of these cities were reconstructed (e.g. 'Paris', with urbanspace recreated 'as a visual spectacle, opening up the monumental vista whilesimultaneously rendering the city a site of consumption, of window-shopping,promenading and surveillance.' (Gunn, 2006: 123)

Urban modernity was, however, not merely reflected in the built form of the city or its governance. The city also became a site for novel forms of urban interaction and sociability made possible by the emergence and consolidation of a new domain mediating between state and society: what is broadly referred to as the 'public sphere'. Equally, the unprecedented density of people, technologies, commodities, institutions and information within cities generated new encounters and experiments, both individual and collective, that were distinctively 'modern'. And, as the nineteenth-century French romantic poet Charles Baudelaire was quick to grasp, many of the fundamental aspirations and anxieties associated with modernity were most intensely experienced in the city.

These forms and ideals of urban modernity came to be adopted in many parts of the globe during the age of 'imperial globalization' presided over by Europeans. Cities across the colonial world took their spatial, technological and social cues from the imperial West. However, as a growing body of scholarship has begun to show, they also developed in ways that were not prefigured by the experience of the metropolitan contexts.

2.2 MEANING

A city is a large human settlement. It can be defined as a permanent and

densely settled place with administratively defined boundaries whose members work primarily on non-agricultural tasks. Cities generally have extensive systems for housing, transportation, sanitation, utilities, land use, and communication. Their density facilitates interaction between people, government organisations and businesses, sometimes benefiting different parties in the process, such as improving efficiency of goods and service distribution. This concentration also can have significant negative consequences, such as forming urban heat islands, concentrating pollution, and stressing water supplies and other resources.

Historically, city-dwellers have been a small proportion of humanity overall, but following two centuries of unprecedented and rapid urbanisation, roughly half of the world population now lives in cities, which has had profound consequences for global sustainability. Present-day cities usually form the core of larger metropolitan areas and urban areas—creating numerous commuters traveling towards city centres for employment, entertainment, and edification. However, in a world of intensifying globalisation, all cities are to varying degrees also connected globally beyond these regions. This increased influence means that cities also have significant influences on global issues, such as sustainable development, global warming and global health.

Other important traits of cities besides population include the capital status and relative continued occupation of the city. For example, country capitals such as Abu Dhabi, Beijing, Berlin, Cairo, London, Moscow, Paris, Rome, Seoul, Tokyo, and Washington D.C. reflect their nation's identity. Some historic capitals, such as Kyoto, maintain their reflection of cultural identity even without modern capital status. Religious holy sites offer another example of capital status within a religion, Jerusalem, Mecca, and Varanasi each hold significance. The cities of Faiyum, Damascus, and Argos are among those laying claim to the longest continual inhabitation. In terms of relative age, the oldest cities in the Americas are Cholula near Puebla, Florés in Petén, and Acoma near Albuquerque, while the oldest capital cities in the Americas are Mexico City, Santo Domingo, and San Juan.

2.3 CLASSIFICATIONS

There are very few sociological terms on whose definition experts agree. The concept of the city is no exception. In defining the city we encounter numerous problems which are known to all sociologists. Mumford (1948) also mentions this fact in his article on City: Forms and Functions in International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, he writes "Although the city as a form of human settlement dates back to the beginnings of civilisation, it long escaped scholarly scrutiny; and its very definition is still under debate. Levi - Strauss's attack on the ambiguities of "totemism" would apply equally to the term "city" but with less justification, since the city has undergone many changes without losing its architectural and institutional continuity." Everybody seems to know what a city is but no one has given a satisfactory definition. Since English lacks a neat vocabulary to distinguish the succession

of urban forms from embryo to adult, their purely quantitative aspect is best rendered in German: Dorf, Kleinstadt, Mittelstadt , Grosstade, Millionenstadt. In English, eopolis, polis, metropolis, megalopolis, and conurbation have been proposed as equivalent series, with regional city and regional urban grid as possible emergent forms (Mumford ibid.).

Like many other sociological categories, the city is at1 abstraction, but the elements of which it consists-residents, structures, means of transportation, installations, and so on - are concrete entities of varying nature. What makes a city is the functional integration of its elements into a whole (Bergel, 955). Yet a city has not merely a single function but rather an assortment of many functions and not all of them are present in every city. These may vary from city to city and time to time. There are different ways to define city such as legal, statistical, density, occupation, sociological and economical. Let us discuss all of them in detail one by one.

Definition on Legal Basis

The city in many countries has been defined in legal terms. A place is legally made a city by a declaration, called a charter, which is granted by a higher authority. In India the State Government has the responsibility of sranting municipal/civic status to a settlement or notifying it as a town. Such towns are known as statutory towns. The procedure is very clear but the bases of identification are not uniform across the states and extremely unsatisfactory. It is an explanation ex post facto. A place is not a city because it has received a charter; the grant of the charter is recognition that it has become a city. The definition disregards the fact that many eastern cities have never had a charter and that in the West the legal distinction between cities and rural places evolved at a rather late date.

Statistical Basis

Another equally simple approach is provided through statistical indicators. The U.S. Bureau of Census considers as cities all "incorporated places" of 2,500 or more inhabitants. This method meets the needs of statisticians but offers little sociological insight. The arbitrariness of this kind of definition is revealed by the fact that the United States census has had to alter its criterion from 8,000 inhabitants to 4,000 and finally to the present figure. To meet other difficulties, the census has had to include additional urban developments, such as City and Metropolis "unincorporated towns or townships or political subdivisions." -There are also substantial international variations. Most European countries follow the example set by France in 1846, requiring a minimum population of 2,000. This figure was approved by the International Bureau of Statistics in 1887. It has not been universally accepted, however, since Korea, for example, still sets the minimum limits as high as 44,000. In India the cut off point for non-statutory towns is According to the statistical definition noted above, a place having certain number- of persons will be known as a city. It is obvious that a place does not become a city by merely reaching that figure. It is equally obvious that a place with that

minimum number of persons and another one with over one million persons must have something in common, besides having a certain number of inhabitants if we have to justify our calling them both cities, as distinct from rural settlements.

Basis of Density of Population

Another quantitative criterion for defining the city on is the basis of populat.ion density. Like the definition based on the number of persons, the definitions based on the density of population have also been questioned for similar reasons. It is impossible to state at what density a settlement changes from the rural to the urban type. Some villages are rather thickly settled while some urban sections represent a residential vacuum. In Mumbai more than 55 per cent of slum population occupies only 6 per cent of residential areas. These are the areas which are densely populated in Mumbat, where as many sections of the may have a density of less , than 50 persons per acre. Same is the case in New Delhi. 'The "City" of London has practically no inhabitants and the borough of Richmond, which is a part of New York City, has a much Lower density than the Neolithic European pile dwellings which possibly housed as many as 1,300 persons on less than 30,000 square yards. The density of cities varies from 10 (Australia and New Zealand) to 33 (Paris) per square hectare.

For these reasons attempts to arrive at an exact minimum figure of density which signifies the urban character of a settlement are rarely made. Walter F. Willcox tried to arrive at a numerical definition by investigating the density of Tompkins County, New York. He proposes the following figures: density of less than 100 per square mile constitutes "country," density; from 100 to 1000 constitutes "villages," and density above 1,000 "cities." His proposition was only tentative since he had analysed only one American county. A Willcox himself realized, conditions in other counties might be different. But if the density varies from area to area while the cities maintain their character, the validity of the measurement would collapse, since a yardstick must not vary.

Basis of Occupation

Not satisfied by the density criterion, Willcox added the criterion of Occupational structure in defining an urban centre. According to his own Trends in Urbanization Process definition, he regarded a district as rural only if "presumably agriculture is the only occupation," while cities are places "in which there is practically no agriculture." He remarked, "t+e fundamental difference between country and city is the difference between agriculture and the group of other occupations. "

City According to Indian Census

The census of India has defined urban /town by combining legal, population, occupation and density, which is clear from the definition given below:

a) All places with municipality, corporation, cantonment board, or notified town area committee, etc.

b) All other places which satisfied the following criteria;

i) a minimum population of 5,000.

ii) At least 75 per of male working population in non-agricultural pursuits; and (this criteria has been used in many other ways as well. The confusion arises as in some census updates the criterion is stated as (1) 75% of all working population (2) 75% of adult male population. (3) Also some use "non primary" rather than "non agriculture".)

iii) a density of population of at least 400 persons per sq. km.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of City?

Definition of City with Legal Basis ?

2.4 TRENDS IN URBANIZATION PROCESS

Put against the level of urbanization in the world India's urbanization level is still low, although urbanization has gained some speed in the post-independence period. From the 1990 data we can see that 42.7 per cent of world population was living in urban areas.

There was wide gap in the level of urbanization between the more developed regions, which had 72.7 per cent of the population as urban population, and the less developed regions, with only 33.9 per cent of urban population. Among the continents Europe, Oceania and Latin America had a very high level of urbanization with 73.1, 70.9 and 72.3 per cent of their population as urban population respectively. In contrast, Africa with 34.5 per cent of its population as urban population and Asia with only 29.9 per cent of its population as urban population were the least urbanized among the continents. Again, among the Asian regions Western Asia is more urbanized (with 58.2 per cent of itspopulation living in urban areas) than Eastern Asia (29.4 per cent), Southeastern Asia (29 per cent) and South Asia (27.8 per cent) (for details see Mitra, 1994: 48). Thus South Asia, of which India is a part, is one of the least urbanized regions of the world.

According to 1991 census only 25.72 per cent of India's population was living in urban areas, which again is less than the South Asian standard.

The annual growth rate of urban population in India has declined from 3.1 per cent during 1981-91 to 2.7 per cent during 1991-2001. The decade 1971-81 had recoded the highest annual growth rate of 3.8 per cent but the last two decades have recorded decelerating growth rates in India. The percentage of urban population has gone up from 23.73 in 1981 to 25.72 in 1991 and finally to 27.78 in 2001. The slow growth of urban population in India goes against popular notions of "urban explosion" and against the most expert predictions. The Planning Commission (1983), the Expert Committee for Population Projections for the Eighth Plan, and the UN Study of World Urbanization Prospects (1995, 2001) had predicted 3 – 4.4 per cent annual growth of urban population in the 1980s and 1990s. The UN projection of 3.2 per cent growth during 2000-10 and 2.8 per cent during 2020-25 also seem to be unrealistic. Keeping in view that the growth rate of total population is expected to be less than 1 per cent according to UN projection it would require a very high rate of rural-urban migration to meet the projected level of urbanization.

By way of explanation to the sluggish growth of urban population the scholars argue that not only the natural growth rate of urban population has declined but also the city bound migration of both male and female population has decelerated over the years. A study in 1983 suggests that contribution of rural-urban migration to urbanization declined over the decades and stood at 22.6 percent in the 1980s. During 1971-81 the percentage of intercensal migrants in urban areas declined from 18.5 to 16.9 and that of lifetime migrants (male) from 33.6 to 32.4. The share of lifetime interstate migrants came down from 11.2 per cent to 10.0 per cent. The 1991 Census also recorded further decline in urban-bound migration rate. In the 1981-91 decade the decadal, lifetime and interstate migration rates were 11.7, 26.0 and 8.0 respectively. The female migration to the urban areas, which takes place primarily due to social and cultural factors, also slowed down during the decade. Amitabh Kundu has identified four major reasons for the growth of urban population in India: (a) natural increase, (b) growth of new towns outside agglomerations, (c) merging of towns and jurisdictional changes in agglomerations, and (d) rural-urban migration.

Available data suggest that natural increase accounted for 61.3 per cent and 59.4 per cent of the total increase in urban population in 1971-81 and 1981-91 decades respectively.

The 1991-2001 decade too experienced a decline in natural growth rate of urban population. The share of component (b) in the total addition to urban population has declined from 9.4 per cent in the 1980s to 6.2 percent in the 1990s. This indicates that the rate of urban growth outside the existing agglomerations and urbanized regions has slowed down over the decades. The third component, i.e., extension of municipal boundaries, merging of old towns or inclusion of new towns in the existing urban agglomerations, was considered a minor contributor to the growth of urban population in the

1960s, 1970s and 1980s. The number of towns merged with existing neighboring towns was only 221 in 2001 and in 1991 the number was half of this. However, the share of this factor to the growth of urban population went up from 7.6 per cent in 1991 to 13.0 percent in 2001. The contribution of the fourth factor has been estimated to be 21 per cent in 1990s, which was marginally less than the figure for the previous decade. (Kundu, 2005: 105).

2.5 Let us Sum Up

Urbanization does not mean the growth of urban population and concentration of production and commercial activities alone; it would also mean a balanced development of infrastructure, civic amenities and opportunities for all sections of the urbanites. It would mean access to healthy environment, egalitarian development, democratic empowerment, and decentralization of power and cultural uplift of the people. What would ultimately matter is the quality of life that the urban centers ensure to their citizens.

Judging the current trend it is projected that by 2015 around 40 per cent of India's population would be living in urban areas and a large majority of this population would inhabit the large cities. At present nearly 38 per cent of total urban population is considered poor and about 35 per cent live in slums. About 44 per cent of urban families manage with one room, between 70 and 80 lakh urban population are homeless; 52 per cent of urban population do not have access to healthy sanitation; only about 24 per cent own sanitary latrines; a large section of urban population does not have access to safe drinking water; every year environmental pollution hands over untimely death to about 40,000 urbanites. When there is an estimated need of twenty thousand crore rupees to provide the minimum urban amenities to its people the Indian Government is downsizing the budgetary allocation for urban development. In 1951 the budgetary allocation for urban development was 8 per cent but in 2005 it has been reduced to 2.6 per cent (Bhattacharya, 2005: 56-83)

2.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of City?
2. Define City with legal basis ?

2.7 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. A city is a large human settlement. It can be defined as a permanent and densely settled place with administratively defined boundaries whose members work primarily on non-agricultural tasks. Cities generally have extensive systems for housing, transportation, sanitation, utilities, land use, and communication.
2. The city in many countries has been defined in legal terms. A place is legally

made a city by a declaration, called a charter, which is granted by a higher authority. In India the State Government has the responsibility of sranting municipal/civic status to a settlement or notifying it as a town. Such towns are known as statutory towns. The procedure is very clear but the bases of identification are not uniform across the states and extremely unsatisfactory. It is an explanation ex post facto. A place is not a city because it has received a charter; the grant of the charter is recognition that it has become a city. The definition disregards the fact that many eastern cities have never had a charter and that in the West the legal distinction between cities and rural places evolved at a rather late date.

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UNIT III : URBANIZATION & URBANISM: MEANING, THEORIES OF URBANIZATION, CHARACTERISTICS OF URBANISM

Structure

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Urbanization, indeed, is the process of becoming urban, moving to cities, changing from agriculture to other pursuits common to cities, such as trade, manufacturing, industry and management, and corresponding changes of behaviour patterns.

It is the process of expansion in the entire system of interrelationships by which a population maintains itself in its habitat (Hawley, 1981). An increase in the size of towns and cities leading to growth of urban population is the most significant dimension of urbanization. The urban centers are essentially non-agricultural in character. In ancient times there have been great many cities such as Rome or Baghdad but ever since industrialization and increasing industrial production and territory level production cities have grown phenomenally and now urbanization is very much apart of our contemporary life.

What exactly constitutes, urban and what is the process of urbanization will be dealt with in the following sections. We will also talk about various theories associated with urbanization. We will discuss the growth of cities and some of the problems associated with urban centers as well.

3.1 URBANIZATION & URBANISM

What is an ‘urban area’? The term is used in two senses – demographic and sociological. Demographically, the focus is on the size and density of population and nature of work of the majority of the adult males. Sociologically, the focus is on heterogeneity, impersonality, interdependence and the quality of life. Tonnies (1957) differentiated between gemeinschaft

(rural) and gesellschaft (urban) communities in terms of social relationships and values.

The former is one in which social bonds are based on close personal ties of kinship and friendship, and the emphasis is on tradition, consensus and informality, while in the latter, impersonal and secondary relationships predominate and the interaction of people is formal, contractual and dependent on the special function or service they perform. Other sociologists like Max Weber (1961) and George Simmel (1950) have stressed on dense living conditions, rapidity of change and impersonal interaction in urban settings.

In India, the demographic and economic indexes are important in defining specific areas as town or city. The census definition of 'town' remained more or less the same for the period 1901-1951 but in 1961, a new definition was adopted. Up to 1951, 'town' included:

1) An inhabited locality with a total population of not less than 5,000 persons;

2) Every municipality, corporation and notified area of whatever size; and

3) All civil lines not included within municipal limits.

Thus, the primary criteria for deciding whether a particular place is a town or not was the administrative set-up rather than the size of the population. Because of this definition many of the towns in reality were nothing more than over-grown villages.

In 1961 'town' was redefined and determined on the basis of a number of empirical tests:

a) a minimum population of 5,000,

b) a density of not less than 1,000 per square mile,

c) three-fourths of the occupations of the working population should be outside of agriculture, and

d) the place should have a few characteristics and amenities such as newly founded industrial areas, large housing settlements, and places of tourist importance and civic amenities. As a result of the new definition of 'town' was a reduction in the total number of towns in India between 1951 and 1961. The 1961 basis was adopted in the 1971, 1981 and 1991 censuses too for defining towns.

Sociologists do not attach much importance to the size of population in the definition of city because the minimum population standards vary greatly. A city is an administratively defined unit of territory containing "a relatively large, dense and permanent settlement of socially heterogeneous individuals" (Wirth, 1938). Urban refers to a set of specialized, non-agricultural activities that are characteristic of, but not exclusive to, city dwellers. A ruling class with a capacity for taxation and capital accumulation and writing and its application to predictive sciences, artistic expression, and trade for vital

materials are the kinds of specialized activities necessary to the definition of the emergence of a truly urban place (Childe, 1950).

Urbanization

Urbanization as a structural process of change is generally related to industrialization but it is not always the result of industrialization. Urbanization results due to the concentration of large-scale and small scale industrial and commercial, financial and administrative set up in the cities; technological development in transport and communication, cultural and recreational activities. The excess of urbanization over industrialization that makes it possible to provide employment for all persons coming to urban areas is, in fact, what sometimes leads to over urbanization. In India, a peculiar phenomenon is seen: industrial growth without a significant shift of population from agriculture to industry and of growth of urban population without a significant rise in the ratio of the urban to the total population. While in terms of ratio, there may not be a great shift from rural to urban activities, but there is still a large migration of population from rural areas to urban areas. This makes urban areas choked, there is lack of infrastructural facilities to cope with this rising populations.

Urbanism

Urbanism has been defined by various scholars as patterns of culture and social interaction resulting from the concentration of large populations into relatively small areas. It reflects an organization of society in terms of a complex division of labour, high levels of technology, high mobility, interdependence of its members in fulfilling economic functions and impersonality in social relations (Theodorson, 1969).

Urbanism as way of life, Louis Wirth believes, may be empirically approached from three interrelated perspectives:

- As a physical structure with a population base, technology and ecological order;
- As a system of social organization with a structure and series of institutions (secondary contacts, weakening of kinship ties etc.);
- As a set of attitudes, ideas and constellation of personalities (increased personal disorganization, suicide, crime, delinquency and corruption).

3.1.1 MEANING

Urbanization implies a cultural and social psychological process whereby people acquire the material and non-material culture, including behavioural patterns, forms of organization, and ideas that originated in, or are distinctive of the city. Although the flow of cultural influences is in both directions – both toward and away from the city – there is substantial agreement that the

cultural influences exerted by the city on non-urban people are probably more pervasive than the reverse. Urbanization seen in this light has also resulted in what Toynbee has called the "Westernization" of the world.

The idea of urbanization may be made more precise and meaningful when interpreted as aspects of diffusion and acculturation. Urbanization may be manifest either as intra-society or inter-society diffusion, that is, urban culture may spread to various parts of the same society or it may cross cultural or national boundaries and spread to other societies. It involves both borrowing and lending. On the other side of the diffusion coin is acculturation, the process whereby, individuals acquire the material possessions, behavioral patterns, social organization, bodies of knowledge, and meanings of groups whose culture differs in certain respects from their own. Urbanization as seen in this light is a complex process (Gist and Fava: 1933).

The history of urbanization in India reveals, broadly four processes of urbanization at work throughout the historical period. These are:

a) the emergence of new social relationships among people in cities and between people in cities and those in villages through a process of social change;

b) the rise and fall of cities with changes in the political order;

c) the growth of cities based on new productive processes, which alter the economic base of the city; and

d) the physical spread of cities with the inflow of migrants, who come in search of a means of livelihood as well as a new way of life.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of Urbanisation ?

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2. Explain – Urbanism ?

3.1.2 THEORIES OF URBANIZATION

City forms the central point of urban sociology. Like many other sociological categories, the city is an abstraction composed of concrete entities like residences and shops and an assortment of many functions. A place is legally made a city by a declaration by a competent authority. Sorokin and

Zimmerman enumerate eight characteristics in which the urban world differs from the rural world. These are (1) occupation (2) environment (3) size of community (4) density of population (5) heterogeneity (6) social differentiation and stratification (7) mobility and (8) system of interactions.The study of cities was a subject that had already explored in the second part of the 19th century in early classical sociology with its celebrated dichotomies, such as Maine's (1931) distinction between status and contract and Morgan's (1877) contrast between savagery, barbarism and civilization. This aspect was further developed by Tonnies (1957), who contrasted gemeinschaft and gesellschaft, and by Durkheim (1964), who distinguished between "mechanical and "organic" solidarity. Tonnies and Durkheim believed that the gemeinschaft type of social organization, or mechanical solidarity, is fully developed in cities, particularly in modern cities.

In 1920-1940s a number of sociologist from the university of Chicago put forward ideas which for many years were the chief basis for theory and research on urban sociology. Two strands of the Chicago school that we are going to examine are the ecological approach and the 'urbanism as away of life' approach developed by Wirth.

Louis Wirth – Urbanism as a Way of Life

Wirth was one of the pioneers of the study of urbanism and his was the first systematic attempt to distinguish the concepts of urbanism and urbanization. His social-psychological theory investigates the human behavior in an urban environment. He indicated that size, density and heterogeneity – regarded as the principal traits in defining cities – are conducive to specific behavioral patterns and moral attitudes (Wirth, 1938). For him "a city is a relatively large, dense and permanent settlement of socially heterogeneous individuals".

Urbanism is that complex of traits that makes up the characteristic mode of life in cities. Urbanism, as a way of life, may be approached empirically from three interrelated perspectives:

(1) as a physical structure comprising a population base, a technology, and an ecological order; (2) as a system of social organization involving a characteristic social structure, a series of social institutions, and a typical pattern of social relationships; and (3) as a set of attitudes and ideas, and a constellation of personalities engaging in typical forms of collective behaviour and subject to characteristic mechanisms of social control.

Louis Wirth shows two kinds of forces operating in urban society: the force of segregation and the melting pot effect; which has many unifying aspects like uniform system of administration etc. However, he concludes that urban society is based on a means-to-end rationality, which is exploitative and where the individual is isolated through anonymity. Wirth believed that the density of life in cities produced neighbourhoods, which have the distinctive characteristics of traditional communities.

Wirth's theory is important for it's recognition that urbanism is not just part

of a society, but expresses and influences the wider social system. However, Wirth's observations are based on American cities, which are generalized to urban centers everywhere, where situations are different.

The Ecological Approach

In natural sciences the term ecology is used to understand the relationship plants and animals have with their environment. The term is used in a similar way to understand the process of urabanisation, by such scholars as Robert Park, Ernest Burgess and Amos Hawley. The scholars of ecological approach feel that cities do not grow randomly but grow along lines and in response to features which are advantageous to it–along rivers, near natural resources, in the intersection of trading rotes etc. They feel that cities become ordered in to "natural areas", through a process of competition, invasion and succession. Patterns of location, movement and relocation in cities follow similar principles. These scholars view cities as a map of areas with distinct characteristics.

Burgess sees them as concentric zones- Central Business District (with concentration of trade, retail, business and related activities are located), the Transition Zone to the outer fringes which he calls the Commuter Zone-the satellite towns and suburbs. Process of invasion and succession occur within these segments.

Some of the principles of these theories can be applied to Indian situation especially to growth's such as suburbs such as Gurgaon in outer fringes of Delhi or the growth of suburbs in Bombay but largely the theory is based on American cities which have distinct characteristics. The theory, also, underempahsises the role of planning and design in cities.

Urbanism and Created Environment : Harvey and Castells More recent theorist such as David Harvey and Manuell Castell's have stressed that urbanism is not an autonomous process, but is part of a larger political and economic processes and changes.

In modern urbanism , Harvey points out space is continually restructured .The process is determined by large firms, who decide where they should open their businesses, factories etc and by policies, controls and initiatives asserted by governments which can change the landscape of a city.

Like Harvey, Castells stresses that spacial form of a city is very much related to the larger process of the society. Castells further adds the dimension of the struggles and conflicts of various groups who make up the cities. He gives the example of gay community who have reorganized the structure of San Francisco city. He believes that it is not only big corporations, businesses and government which influence the shape a of a city but also the communities and groups who live in cities.

Harvey and Castells analysis of uranbinasation and urabn situation adds an important dimension – the political economy of a system. According to

Harvey and Castellls the special form of a city is very much influenced by the politico-economic considerations of corporations, business houses and governments.

Indian Sociologists : Rao and Bose

M.S.A. Rao (1970), analysis urabinasation and urbanism keeping in mind the larger social structures of Indian society. For him, urbanism is a heterogeneous process and hence there can be many forms of urbanisms giving rise to many types of urbanization. Rao states that the dichotomy between cities and villages is incorrect as both have the same structural features of caste and kinship and are parts of the same civilization. Moreover, urbanization and westernization are not identical and should not be confused. Urbanization does not lead to the breakdown of traditional structures of caste and joint family. The traditional and modern structures coexist in the urban milieu because of which various types of urbanisms exist – post-industrial, preindustrial, western, non-western etc. Further, urbanization is seen in relation to social change and no real social transformation is associated with it. However, due to urbanization new forms of social organization and association have emerged. Thus, for Rao, urbanization is a complex multifaceted process comprising of ideological, cultural, historical, demographic, comparative, traditional and sociological elements. Rao defines a city as a center of urbanization and urban way of life. Urbanization is a two way process. Urbanization in India is not a uniform process but occurs along different axes - administrative, political, commercial, religious and educational - giving rise to several types of urbanisms. These different axes give rise to different types of contact which the city has with the villagers leading to distinct patterns of urbanization.

He distinguishes three kinds of situations of social change in rural areas resulting from urbanization: villages near an industrial town, villages with a sizable number of emigrants working in towns and cities, and villages on the metropolitan fringe. Rao believed that through the study of migration, one could observe the similarities, dissimilarities and continuity between villages and towns. Rao's sociological approach is the most complete approach to the study of urbanization because he tries to examine them in all their different facets and relate these facets to one another and to a sociological understanding of urbanism and urbanization.

Ashish Bose's demographic classification emphasizes quantitative factors like demography rather than qualitative factors in defining urbanization. For him, urbanization, in the demographic sense, is an increase in the proportion of the urban population (U) to the total population (T) over a period of time. As long as U/T increases there is urbanization. The process of urbanization is a continuing process which is not merely a concomitant of industrialization but a concomitant of the whole gamut of factors underlying the process of economic growth and social change.

Bose outlines the characteristic features of urbanization in India. He made a decade-wise differentiation in terms of percentage of urbanization. Here

urbanization is affected by trends in migration. He recognizes the push-back and turn-over factors of migration. He considered four variables affecting urban growth:

a) Proportion of new towns to total urban population;

b) Proportion of declassified towns to the total population;

c) Proportion of declining towns to the total population;

d) Proportion of rapidly growing towns to the total urban population.

Only when these are combined, it will be possible to analyze the process of urbanization in India. Bose used the concepts of towns and cities interchangeably.

3.1.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF URBANISM

Various characteristics of urban growth or urbanization:

A. Economic Development

The level of urbanization is considered as an index of economic development. Economic growth results in the shift in demand and therefore to a reallocation of resources –land, labor, and capital- out of agriculture into manufacturing and services.

B. Industrialization and Density

The relative importance of manufacturing and services the does not just characterize an urban settlement but more importantly, by a high density of population. Much of manufacturing is cheaper when produced on a large-scale because of the economies of scale.

Also, there are ready availability of inputs like skilled labor, repair services etc. from which profit is earned by the producer. People like to live near places of work.

Economies of scale and cost of transportation cause concentration of production and people in a specific location.

Industrialization leads to urbanization but not vice versa.

The bigger cities have one advantage. Most businesses are subject to fluctuations. In big cities, one may switch from one employer to another in case of need or any other reason since there is a wide choice. In that way, a wage laborer is better off in migrating to a big city rather than a small city, where (big city) he is likely to be more fully employed. All these factors increase the density of population in the cities.

Primary production and urban growth: Primary production has to do with agriculture, fishing, forestry, and mining. It is well-known that, particularly since AD 1850, a large number of mining towns have emerged in India. The entire coal region of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa has a number of, mining towns; the chief among which are Jharia, Ranigani, Keonjhar and Asansol. Unlike mining, fishing and forestry have not generated many urban places in India.

Secondary activities and urban growth: The most conspicuous examples of urbanization directly as a result of secondary activity are Durgapur, Bhilai and Rourkela. Jamshedpur also had its beginnings as an industrial township in 1912. There is no doubt that secondary urbanization has made a strong impression on the Indian landscape.

Tertiary production and urbanization: From ancient times, tertiary services have played a major role in the urbanization process. The earliest cities of the world came into existence essentially in order to provide tertiary services to their hinterland. It is often thought that the earliest cities developed as parasites thriving on the surplus food produced in the rural hinterland. The growth of tertiary activities in a city contributes in a direct way to city growth. In every city, a part of the city tertiary activities are meant for its own population, but a second and perhaps more significant part exists for the benefits of the people in the city's hinterland.

Economic development generally refers to the sustained, concerted actions of policymakers and communities that promote the standard of living and economic health of a specific area. Economic development can also be referred to as the quantitative and qualitative changes in the economy. Such actions can involve multiple areas including development of human capital, critical infrastructure, regional competitiveness, environmental sustainability, social inclusion, health, safety, literacy, and other initiatives.

Urbanization is an integral part of economic development. As an economy develops, there is an increase in per capita income and also demand for non-farm goods in the economy. These goods are not heavily land dependent. These are cheaper if produced in the urban sector because all provisions for production these goods are available here.

With the rise in urbanization, many events like rapid population growth because of natural increase, migration from rural areas to urban areas, classification of rural areas as towns because of the changing demographic character of the rural regions pose a challenge.

Other challenges are the weak growth of formal employment resulting in the growth of the urban informal sector, urban unemployment, and underemployment. Another challenge is the inability of social and physical infrastructure to grow at par with the urban population growth

resulting in deterioration of the quality of urban life. These problems are visible in most of the cities in India.

Hence, the level of urbanization is regarded as an index of economic development, as financial growth results in the shift in demand and therefore to a reallocation of resources –land, labor and capital- out of agriculture into manufacturing and services.

3.2 LET US SUM UP

As you can see urbanization is an on going phenomena which is very difficult to capture through any single approach or analysis, especially in India. In this unit we have tried to capture different aspects of urabnisation-the history to present situation. the various approaches to study urbanisaion and the problems and consequences of urbanization. And we find that it is a process which is linked to many larger structures and process. As globalization process is speeding up, connecting the world n unprecedented ways, there is a suggestion that cities throughout the world will come to exhibit organizational forms increasingly similar to one another as technology becomes more accessible throughout the global system Some theorists suggests that increasingly divergent forms of urban organization are likely to emerge due to differences in the timing and pace of the urbanization process, differences in the position of cities within the global system, and increasing effectiveness of deliberate planning of the urbanization process by centralized governments holding differing values and, therefore, pursuing a variety of goals for the future .

3.3 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Urbanization?
2. Explain the Urbanism?

3.4 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Urbanization as a structural process of change is generally related to industrialization but it is not always the result of industrialization. Urbanization results due to the concentration of large-scale and small scale industrial and commercial, financial and administrative set up in the cities; technological development in transport and communication, cultural and recreational activities.

2. Urbanism has been defined by various scholars as patterns of culture and social interaction resulting from the concentration of large populations into relatively small areas. It reflects an organization of society in terms of a complex division of labour, high levels of technology, high mobility, interdependence of its members in fulfilling economic functions and

impersonality in social relations (Theodorson, 1969).

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BLOCK II: SLUMS – DEFINITION, APPROACHES, URBAN PROBLEMS AND URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

UNIT IV : SLUMS – DEFINITION, APPROACHES, THEORIES AND CLASSIFICATION AND CULTURE OF SLUMS

Structure

4.0 INTRODUCTION

It is a fact that slum is basically an area of the worst form of struggle for the basic needs of life. The slum is the complex product of many products as it is true of many other social phenomena but poverty is the foremost one. It is interplay of objective economic facts and subjective group standards. Low-income forces people to live in slums. This paper presents a sociological analysis of the urban problems called slums, especially focusing on the various aspects such as nature and characteristic of the slum. In the first section this paper tries to examine the basic nature of the slum, which is not just an area of substandard housing condition, but it refers to the actual living conditions of the people in an urban area.

The characteristics of the slum has been presented under various subheadings like housing condition, overcrowding and congestion, poor sanitation and health, apathy and social isolation, deviant behaviour and the culture of the slum, that is, a way of life. In brief, this paper also tries to understand various functions of the slum, which met various needs and had served several useful functions for certain social groups like poor and migrant workers etc. under the section 'A brief historical perspective on the slum,' this paper traces the socio-historical analysis of slums starting from the slums of ancient Roman cities, the Jewish ghetto, British slums of 19th century to the slums of U.S

before the World War-II. This paper also undertakes a systematic study of the socio-economic profile of Indian slums and also illustrates with a case study like Dharavi of Mumbai. The final section deals with various theoretical approaches related to the solution of slum problems. The most prominent ones discussed here are the traditional welfarist approach, the developmental approach, the Marxist or socialist approach and humanitarian approach.

The slums constitute the most important and persistent problem of urban life. They are the chief sources of crime and delinquency, of illness and death from diseases. Slums are of all shapes, types and forms. Mumbai has its packed multistoried chawls, New York- its Harlem and its East side, Chicago- its black belt, London- its east end. Families in Bangkok crowd together in 'Pile villages' composed of poorly constructed wooden shacks, bamboo hubs and straw hovels along the small lanes of Kolkata, Dacca and Lagos, which stream with the high humidity and stink from open drains. Impoverished shantytown or squatter shacks constructed from junks cover the hillside of Rio de Janeiro, Lima, Hong Kong and other Asian, African and South American cities. Even the most affluent nation in the world have slums. At least one fifth of urban population of U.S lives in poor or sub standard housing. Like U.S, other capitalist nations of the world have slums. These nations have progressed on other fronts but the shelter problems have eluded solutions. Even in socialist countries where massive urban renewal programs have taken place and where private ownership of land does not exists, slums do exist. The developing countries or the underdeveloped countries, which have chosen the capitalist path of development, are often referred to as the Third World, where the trends of urbanization since the Second World War have been interesting, instructive and alarming.

Steaks of contrasts in all spheres of life characterize Third World. Some of these contrasts assume the form of contradictions. For instances, in Mumbai where perhaps some of the worst slums in the world can be found the skyline is getting changed by an eruption of skyscrapers of the most modern dimension, accommodating airline companies, five star hotels, officers of multinationals and the affluent few of the metropolis. The slum offends the eyes, nose and conscience but it exists all the same. We somehow learnt to live complacently with such contradictions, which eloquently proclaim our distorted sense of priorities. It would not be too sweeping to say that the slum has become an inevitable and expanding feature of cities in developing countries.

Shelterless people grab every patch of vacant spot to pitch a makeshift shack. In Mumbai besides a few lakh who lives in slums and sleeps. In the streets, one can see tiny, shaky dwellings made of tin sheets, mud, wood, and rags even under the trees.

4.1 SLUMS

Slums may be characterized as areas of substandard housing conditions within a city. A slum is always an area. The term housing conditions refers to actual living conditions rather than mere physical appearance of the area. The

substandard is to be taken not in an objective or technological but rather in a relative social sense i.e. compared with the recognized standard at a given time in a specific country. The cave dwelling of prehistoric people, the dugouts etc. of pioneers are all substandard according to our notion, but they do not create slum conditions. Slum word has a long and a negative connotation. It has been almost an epithet, implying evil, strange and something to be shunned and avoided. It is being apparently derived from "slumber" as slum were once thought by majority to be unknown, back streets presumed to be sleepy and quite. (The oxford universal dictionary.1995. New York, Oxford University Press) There is a disagreement over whether people make slums or slums make people. Are substandard housing conditions due to social standards behavior of certain groups or vice- versa? The slum is a complex product of many products as it is true of many other social phenomena. But poverty is the foremost one, interplay of objective economic facts and subjective group standard. Low-incomes forces people to live in slums. Slum residents are negligent and do not mind dirt. They have neither money nor time to their area clean or clean if themselves. Lack of basic infrastructure, like drains, drinking water, electricity and location gives the slums a very ungainly picture.

There are three main types of slums – (i) The first type is original slum. It is an area which from the very beginning, consisted of unsuitable buildings, these sections are beyond recovery and need to be razed. The example of this type is the Mexican slum in Wichita. (ii) The second type of slumsconsists of slums created by the departure of the middle class families to other sections and subsequent deterioration of the area. The example of this type is South End slum in Boston. (iii) The third type is the most unpleasant type of slum. It is mainly a phenomenon of transition. Once the area around a main business district has become blighted, physical and social deterioration spreads rapidly. This kind of slum teams with accommodation for the destitute, home of prostitution, beggars, homeless men, habitual criminals, chronic alcoholics etc. This type of slum clearly requires defines rehabilitation.

4.2 DEFINITION

The definition of what constitutes a slum, like that which constitutes an urban area more generally (Dorélien et al., 2013), differs by country (United Nations, 2014), state (Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, 2008) and even city (O'Hare et al., 1998). Recent research has also indicated that slums may be more heterogeneous than is often assumed (Goli et al., 2011, Chandrasekhar and Montgomery, 2009, Agarwal and Taneja, 2005); many poor people like pavement dwellers do not live in slums and are therefore not "counted" by the standard definitions (Agarwal, 2011).

The UN operationally defines a slum as "one or a group of individuals living under the same roof in an urban area, lacking in one or more of the following five amenities": 1) Durable housing (a permanent structure providing protection from extreme climatic conditions); 2) Sufficient living area (no more than three people sharing a room); 3) Access to improved water (water

that is sufficient, affordable, and can be obtained without extreme effort); 4) Access to improved sanitation facilities (a private toilet, or a public one shared with a reasonable number of people); and 5) Secure tenure (de facto or de jure secure tenure status and protection against forced eviction) (UN-HABITAT, 2006/7).

While this definition of what constitutes a slum was used by the UN to evaluate whether target 7.D had been met, it is quite different than those which are used by individual countries for their own policy and planning purposes. Uganda, for example, in a document outlining a slum upgrading strategy and action plan from 2008, defines slums as having one or more of the following attributes: 1) Attracting a high density of low income earners and/or unemployed persons with low levels of literacy, 2) An area with high rates/levels of noise, crime, drug abuse, immorality (pornography and prostitution) and alcoholism and high HIV/AIDS prevalence, or 3) An area where houses are in environmentally fragile lands, e.g. wetlands (Ministry of Lands, 2008).

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of Slum ?

2.Definition of Slum

4.3 APPROACHES

Slums vary from one type to another, but certain general patterns of slums are universal. Although, the slum is generally characterized by inadequate housing, deficient facilities, overcrowding and congestions involve much more then these elements. Sociologically, it is a way of life, a sub culture with a set of norms and values, which is reflected in poor sanitation and health practices, deviant behavior and attributes of apathy and social isolations. People who live in slums are isolated from the general power structure and are regarded as inferiors. Slum dwellers in turn harbor, suspicions of the out side world.

Some of the features of slums are:

1. Housing conditions

In terms of the physical conditions and housing standards it is important to keep in mind the comparative nature of the definitions. A slum should be judged physically according to the general living standards of a country. Slums

have commonly been defined as those portions of cities in which housing is crowded, neglected deteriorated and often obsolete. Many of the inadequate housing conditions can be attributed to poorly arranged structures, inadequate lighting and circulation, lack of sanitary facility, overcrowding and inadequate maintenance.

2. Overcrowding and congestion

A slum may be an area which is overcrowded with buildings or a building overcrowded with people or both. Density does not always result in unfortunate social consequence, the issue is primarily one of overcrowding. Congestion is again a judgment about the physical condition of the building in terms of high density per block, acre or square mile. William. F. Whyte (1943) in his well known sociological study, Street Corner Society situated in Boston's north end, stressed upon the importance of overcrowding as a criterion for measuring slum conditions. Some slum areas like in Delhi, have 40, 00,000 people per square mile.

3. Neighborhood facilities

A poor slum is invariably associated with poor facilities and community services. Along with shabbiness and dilapidation, schools are of poor quality and other public facilities are often insufficient. Streets and sidewalks often go unrepaired and rubbish and garbage are infrequently collected adding to the undesirable environment. Shortage of water, electricity and sanitary facility are common in most of the slums.

4. Poor Sanitation and Health

Slums are generally been dirty and unclean places which is defined largely in terms of the physical deterioration, stressing particularly unsanitary conditions and lack of sufficient facilities like water and latrines. These factors have resulted in high rates death and disease. These factors have always been typical of slum areas where overcrowding and presence of rats and other pest complicate the problem of health and sanitation. In slum areas of developing countries, the rate of disease, chronic illness and infant mortality are exceptionally high.

5. Deviant Behavior

A high incidence of deviant behavior- crime, juvenile delinquency, prostitution, drunkenness, drug usage, mental disorder, suicide, ill legitimacy and family maladjustments have long been associated with slum living. It is a fact that vice may be found in slums but is by no means confined only to the slums. Due to the lack of money and power often slum dwellers are prove to be pressurized by the goons of upper classes to commit crime. It is a vicious cycle for the sum dwellers.

6. The Culture of the Slum- a way of life

Slums differ widely with respect to the social organization of there Inhabitants. They range from the slums in which the inhabitants are strangers to one another, to the family slums in which there is a wide acquaintance between the

inhabitants.

Slums inhabited by immigrant groups may have a firm social organization. Culture might be defined as system of symbols or meanings for the normative conduct of standards, having three distinct properties. It is transmittable, it is learned and it is shared. The slum has a culture of its own and this culture is the way of life. This way of life is passed from generation to generation with its own rationale, structure ad defense mechanism, which provides the means to continue in spite of difficulties and deprivation. It is the habits, customs and behavior pattern people have learned and which they hold that move them to act in a particular way. Although, these cultural patterns are typical of the slum, form ethnic groups to ethnic groups, from own society to society to another.

7. Apathy and Social Isolation

Every residential area within the modern city tends to be socially isolated from others, partly by choice and partly by location. The slum is especially so, as it is inhabited by the people of the lowest status. The chief link with rest of the community is their identification with labour market, but there may be an additional link through politics. A slum also has an image in the eyes of the larger community. There is a societal reaction to slum dwellers. The non-slum dweller often associates the physical appearance and difficult living conditions of the slums with belief in the "Natural inferiority" of those who live in slums. This reaction has important consequences in the social isolation of slum dwellers and their exclusion, from power and participation in urban society. The slum dwellers often lack an effective means of communication with the outside world. Because of apathy, lack of experience in communicating with outsiders and their own powerlessness to make their voice heard. William. F. Whyte (1943) stated that although the north end slum studied in his work on street corner society was a mysterious, dangerous and depressing place to an outsider, it provided an organized and familiar environment for those who lived in it.

4.4 THEORIES AND CLASSIFICATION

The predominantly rural and agricultural nature of Indian society can no longer be called "A nation of villages". Four fifths of India's population presently resides in its half million villages. Today several cities of India are huge metropolitan areas and these cities have become centers of modern technology and the hope of future progress. Among the nations of the world, India is being increasingly judged by the stature and condition of its great cities, where lie the core of its commercial and industrial power and the strength of its transportation, distribution and communication system. The cities of India have played an important role in breaking away from tradition-bound social practices and from the cities most of the modernization processes in the country radiate. Political and social reform movements have largely originated in the cities and have then spread out.

A concomitant of urbanization in India has been in the continuous growth of slum population, as most internal migration has been concentrated in the

slums. Slums have long history in India. The physical and social conditions of today in India slums are generally considered the worst. Although India is a large heterogeneous country who's diversity often makes generalization difficult. Slum conditions can still be characterized in general terms. The streets, lanes and open drains in typical slum areas are filthy. The Indian slum, however, is far more complex than the mere aggregate of these appalling physical condition; it is a way of life. Rates of diseases, chronic illness and infant mortality remain high and there is little knowledge of health and sanitation, nutrition or

childcare. Illiteracy is exceedingly high and cultural and recreation activities are almost entirely lacking except those provided by such commercial enterprises as the cinema and gambling. Most slum dwellers are apathetic and suffer a great sense of futility. They have little community pride or even consensus, and they often blame the local authorities for their plight. They have become antagonistic towards them, seldom co-operating with municipal personnel in efforts to improve their immediate areas or the city as a whole.

A. R. Desai and S. Devadas Pillai (1990), in their work "Slums and urbanization" draw their attention to another significant feature of development postulates adopted by state, which has vitally affected the pattern of urbanization and type of urban living that is being created in the country. Our Constitution has laid down the right to property, which is basic and fundamental, but not the right to work or right to adequate housing, education and employment. The Constitution also proclaims certain freedom and rights to citizens viz. right to move throughout the country, right to life and security and freedom to search for earning and prerequisites needed for that search within legal limits but at the same time Constitution does not ensure the right o have resources for securing livelihood, source of earning, of adequate facilities for stay and other things essential, for mobile jobs for citizens to ensure a better purchasing power to live adequately.

The peculiar dilemma created by contradictory prescription by the Constitution, as well as the path of development, persuaded by rulers legally sanctified by the Constitution, have generated economic development. A small class of property owners is developing at the top, while at the lower levels vast growing section of property less citizens fending for their income for selling their skills and labour is emerging at an exponential rate. This pattern of class differentiation, income and asset concentration on the one hand and pauperization of a considerable section of the population driven to unemployment and under- employed state forced to resort to begging, garbage gathering and various types of legally non permitted are means of petty trades.

This class configuration, emerging as a direct result of government policies is creating a weird strante pattern of urbanization and urban living. On the one hand, there exists an urban sector of rich with posh localities, residential areas glittering shopping malls, luxurious hotels, high style recreation centers as well as sophisticated educational and official complexes for a small minority of wealthy citizens. And on the other hand, urban areas it generates a majority of urban poor living in slums and involves a constant job hunting and income

finding activities lacking adequate purchasing power. They cannot afford to secure shelter, amenities, facilities and services even for basic decent existence.

Slums have been in existence since the time of cities and their presence has long been documented in the literature (e.g., Booth, 1903). The word ‘slum’ has mainly been used to describe people living under substandard conditions and squalor. For example, Cities Alliance (2006) describes slums as ‘neglected parts of cities where housing and living conditions are appallingly poor’. Often the terms ‘slum’ and ‘informal settlements’ are used interchangeably in the literature (UN Habitat, 2012). However, some would argue that there is a distinct difference between slum and informal settlement (e.g., Hurskainen, 2004; Rashid, 2009). (Readers interested in this debate are referred to Gilbert (2007) for a more thorough discussion). This paper adopts the view that slums and informal settlements are one in the same and, therefore, can be treated as one. Usually, as argued by UN-Habitat (2003), most characteristics of these environments, whether slum or informal settlement, are not found in isolation, leading to multiple levels of deprivation for slum dwellers. Whether slums and informal settlements are viewed separately or as a single entity, they represent disadvantaged communities continuing to have large impact on the physical and economic landscapes, as will be discussed below.

The vast majority of the slums are located in less developed countries, and most of the growth in slum populations is expected to occur in such countries. However, just as the term ‘slum’ can have multiple connotations, so does the term ‘developing country’. For the purpose of this paper, we adopt the United Nation’s definitions of ‘less developed country’ and ‘developing country’ for a country where the majority of the population makes significantly less income and has weaker social indicators than the population in highly industrialized countries (UN-OHRLLS, 2016). Furthermore, in such countries there is lack of basic public services. Although alternative terms have been used to describe less developed countries (e.g., ‘emergent nations’), much of the literature on slums that is reviewed here has used the terms ‘less developed’ and ‘developing country’ to refer to areas most impacted by slums.

The impact of slums

The growth of slums is expected to have major consequences on both humans and the environment, which are inextricably linked. On the one hand, the conditions that exist in slums such as living under physical threat from natural and manmade disasters and improper housing have direct impacts on their residents (Napier, 2007). This is mainly due to the low capacity of slums dwellers to recover from disasters, such as floods and earthquakes, compared with more formal communities (Ajibade & McBean, 2014; Ebert, Kerle, & Stein, 2009). On the other hand, slum residents themselves can impact their environment due to lack of basic services, which results in contaminated soil and polluted air and waterways. This results in a perpetuated cycle of decline for both slum dwellers and the environment (Ali & Sulaiman, 2006), with the possibility of impacts extending to communities beyond the slums (e.g., flooding). The growth and expansion of slums can therefore threaten

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sustainable urban development at local, national and regional scales (Patel, 2012).

Growth and expansion of slums can also impact the national and regional economy, both negatively and positively. For example, the negative aspect of slums relates to the fact that they are often burdened with high transaction costs, including increases in transportation expenditures because of inadequate infrastructure, and disease burden on urban dwellers because of the large number of people living in slums (Fox, 2008). In addition, ambiguous property and tenancy rights can reduce the efficiency of urban land and housing markets, and may discourage investment or reduce participation in urban labour markets (Marx, Stoker, & Suri, 2013a). This may potentially impact a country or a region's overall economic outlook in the global economy, making it less competitive in the worldwide arena (Gambo, Idowu, & Anyakora, 2012).

Less often mentioned in the literature is the economic good provided by slum dwellers. Slum dwellers subsidize the middle classes and the business world by providing a comparatively cheap source of labour (Brugmann, 2010; Malecki & Ewers, 2007). Furthermore, it has been argued that their low economic standing and general lack of education forces them to accept low-paying jobs that may not be readily accepted by middle- and upper-class people (Pawar & Mane, 2013). Slum dwellers often find jobs in the informal sector, which is usually linked very closely to the needs of surrounding formal communities (Opeyemi, Olabode, Olalekan, & Omolola, 2012). In some cases, this informal economy has positively impacted the country's gross domestic product (GDP). Slums in Dharavi, India, for example, employ as many as 70% of its residents (Gruber et al., 2005) with current economic output estimates of US$700 million annually (Chege & Mwisukha, 2013). Other places such as Delhi, Bangalore and Kolkata, all in India, also depend heavily on the informal sector for supporting much of their day-to-day manufacturing activities (Benjamin, 2004). Some researchers (e.g., Brugmann, 2013; Saglio-Yatzimirsky, 2013) suggest that if such economic benefits were to be considered alone, places such as Dharavi would no longer be considered a slum.

Lastly, the poor conditions that exist in slums and daily struggles that slum dwellers face continues to be recognized as a global and ethical challenge. Many governments, regional and international non-government organizations (NGOs) have put in place legislation or systems recognizing the need to protect and improve the lives of slum dwellers (e.g., the Rajiv Awas Yojana programme in India; MHUPA, 2013). Likewise, Target 7D of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UN MDG) aims to improve significantly the lives of 100 million slum dwellers worldwide by 2020 (United Nations, 2015a). This target was further advanced with Goal 1 of the UN's Sustainable Development Goals, the MDG's successor. Goal 1 aims to reduce at least by half the population of all people living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions by 2030 (United Nations, 2015b). Failure to take part in such global initiatives may have negative impacts on

countries that depend on others for financial and political support. These impacts highlight the critical need for managing slum populations worldwide. To achieve this goal, it is necessary to understand the factors that have led to the emergence and persistence of slums over time. We would argue that such issues must be dealt with for any future intervention to be successful.

Factors influencing the growth of slums

Many factors have been linked to the growth of slums. This section highlights several of these factors, specifically those relating to locational choice factors, rural-to-urban migration, poor urban governance and ill-designed policies. Those factors chosen for discussion have been identified as those most often discussed by others for the growth and persistence of slums based on an extensive review of the literature.

Locational choice factors

The emergence of slums has been linked to a number of socio-cultural, economic and physical factors. For example, Lall, Lundberg, and Shalizi (2008) examined the residential locational decisions made by slum dwellers in Pune, India, and found that locational decisions were made around theories relating to socio-cultural and economic factors such as commuting costs (e.g., Alonso, 1964), access to local public goods (e.g., Tiebout, 1956) and individual preferences for community or neighbourhood composition (e.g., Schelling, 1978). In addition to these classical models, they found that the locational choices made by slum dwellers was also guided by housing quality and neighbourhood amenities. Similar findings have been reported in other studies (e.g., Abramo, 2009; Takeuchi, Cropper, & Bento, 2006). Social ties related to common culture, language and similar income-generating activities have also been found associated with the locational choices of new immigrants (e.g., Barnhardt, Field, & Pande, 2014; Kombe, 2005). It has also been found that people born within or in close proximity to slums tend to remain in them or move to them (UN-Habitat, 2003), while some slum dwellers are of the belief that places outside of slums are out of their reach (e.g., Ahmed, Brookins, & Ali, 2011). This suggests that any efforts to address the issue of slums must also consider their surroundings and their social structures.

With respect to physical factors impacting the location of slum dwellers, the availability of land has been highly cited in the literature. It has been shown that slum dwellers typically inhabit marginal locations such as riverbanks, steep slopes or dumping grounds (e.g., Sietchiping, 2004). This is mainly due to the low purchasing power of slum dwellers in formal land markets when compared with high-income groups (Ajibade & McBean, 2014; Praharaj, 2013). Slums in South America, for example, Rio de Janiero in Brazil and Lima in Peru, are notoriously known for building on steep slopes (Fernandes et al., 2004). Such locations are usually unsafe, posing a risk to human life because of the occurrence of natural disasters such as landslides. Furthermore, slums are also found both within and on the outskirts of cities (UN-Habitat, 2003). These unique physical characteristics of slums and the complex interplay with the various socio-economic factors pertaining to their growth

and persistence represent a challenging task that has yet to be holistically addressed.

Rural-to-urban migration

Within the literature, rural-to-urban migration not only has been the driver for the growth of cities, but also it has been identified as one of the primary drivers for the growth of slums. In less developed countries the current rapid and immense net movement of the rural population to urban spaces has intensified (Malecki & Ewers, 2007; Srivastava & Singh, 1996). This is due to several factors: those pertaining to the pulling of rural people to cities and push factors driving population away from rural areas. Often cited in the literature with respect to pull factors include the relative perception of better economic opportunities (e.g., Glaeser, 2011) and provision of basic services such as education and healthcare within cities (e.g., Khan, Kraemer, & Kraemer, 2014), or the freedom from restrictive social or cultural norms often found in rural areas (e.g., Opeyemi et al., 2012; Ullah, 2004). Push factors include rural poverty (e.g., Khan et al., 2014), excess agricultural labour supply (e.g., Oberai, 1993), environmental hardships (e.g., Ishtiaque & Mahmud, 2011), threat from natural disasters or conflict and war (e.g., Black, Bennett, Thomas, & Beddington, 2011). While such events have pushed rural dwellers to urban areas, there has been a lack of economic growth in many of these countries and when combined has been touted for the growth and persistence of slums, especially in African countries (Fox, 2012). Whether a pull or a push factor, the net result of rural-to-urban migration is overwhelming to the urban centres in less developed countries, which are not equipped to support the additional population, especially when combined with the socio-economic factors discussed above. Faced with nowhere else to go, people turn to slums to meet their most basic housing needs (Vasudevan, 2015).

Poor urban governance

Other factors relating to the upward growth of slums in many less developed countries is the use of rigid and often outdated urban planning regulations, which are typically bypassed by slum dwellers to meet their housing needs. This is a reflection of poor urban governance (Chiodelli & Moroni, 2014). Many local and national governments are also unable to enforce planning regulations due to lack of resources (Tsenkova, Potsiou, & Badyina, 2009). In Cote d'Ivoire, for example, high infrastructure cost and rigid building standards have led to a slow pace of development, which resulted in unaffordable housing for many large segments of the population (Mayo & Angel, 1993). In Nigeria, official fees involved in the registration process to acquire land can be as much as 27% of the property value (World Bank, 2005), presenting a challenge for slum dwellers with limited finances. These circumstances ultimately lead to high rates of insecurity of tenure and provide conducive conditions that continue to drive the growth of slums due to poorly functioning land markets.

Another issue in many less developed countries is the failure of governments

to incorporate slum dwellers as part of the overall planning process (Cities Alliance, 2014). This is often due to the inability of many governments to keep abreast with urbanization because of the lack of resources and corrupt governments (Fekade, 2000). Some governments also refuse to provide urban services to slum dwellers in fear that this will only escalate the issue of slums (Opeyemi et al., 2012), or lead to more established property rights, which many governments are unwilling to provide (Fox, 2014). As discussed by Werlin (1999), without more established property rights for slum dwellers, governments lack the ability to force slum residents into paying for public services and improving their homes. It is also the case that some governments simply lack the political will to address these issues (e.g., Rashid, 2009). Overall, one could argue that not enough attention has been given to the plight of slum dwellers on the part of government, further enabling the continued growth of slums.

Ill-designed policies

Closely related to poor urban governance are the inappropriate policies developed by local and national governments, and regional led organizations to curb the growth of slums. During the 1950s and 1960s, a time when urbanization was viewed as a positive, with large labour forces needed to fuel economic growth in cities (Fox, 2014), macro-policy intervention with respect to slums was largely ignored, leading to the widespread growth of slums. To tackle this issue, a sites and services approach was introduced in the 1970s. This policy provided infrastructure at new sites (e.g., roads and electricity) and slum dwellers were relocated to these sites (Fekade, 2000). Existing slums were demolished and slum dwellers were expected to pay for the newly developed serviced land as well as all home construction costs (Linden, 1986). With limited finances, and the added challenge of competing with the greater demand by higher income groups for the same available land, slums continued to grow (Arimah, 2001).

The failure of the sites and services approach led to a new wave of thinking during the 1980s, in which slums were upgraded with improved communal infrastructure and services. This avoided the unnecessary demolition of settlements (Gilbert, 2014) while lowering costs in many instances (e.g., Werlin, 1999). However, the slum-upgrading approach has been criticized at four major levels: failed financial commitment, negative socio-economic impacts, non-replicability of best practices and insecurity of tenure (Fekade, 2000). Subsequently, an enabling approach through security of tenure was introduced in the 1990s. Legal occupational status was given to slum dwellers in the hope that they would be more willing improve their own circumstances (de Soto, 2002). This approach relied heavily on the assumption that most slum dwellers owned the dwelling in which they lived. However, this was not the case, as most slum dwellers did not do so (e.g., Gulyani, Talukdar, & Jack, 2010; Marx, Stoker, & Suri, 2013b), and this remains the plight of many slum dwellers today. Further, some would argue (e.g., Desai & Loftus, 2013) that security of land tenure adds an additional burden on slum dwellers since landlords are more likely to increase rental prices and evict those slum

dwellers unable to pay. Moreover, as de Souza (2001) argues, perceptions of security of tenure may vary widely from household to household. Specifically, their study showed that slum dwellers were more willing to invest in improving their housing conditions irrespective of land tenure status. Such findings further challenge the notion that security of land tenure alone would be enough to motivate slum dwellers to improve their own living conditions.

The most recent approach, at least from a macro-policy viewpoint, to reduce the growth of slums is the Cities Without Slums action plan, introduced during the 2000s. This approach forms part of the MDG to improve the lives of 100 million slum dwellers by 2020 (United Nations, 2015a). Central to this idea is the understanding that both poverty and slums are interrelated, with any attempt to fix one having also to consider the other (Arimah, 2001). However, several issues have been identified with the Cities Without Slums action plan. These include little attention being given to other important poverty-related variables (e.g., political instability and natural disasters) and the non-comparability of metrics because of issues with data in many countries and the unique characteristics of slums (Saith, 2006). Furthermore, as no metrics are available for monitoring newly emerging slums, it has been suggested that the goal of improving the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by 2020 is far too modest to generate a meaningful reduction in slums globally (Sietchiping, 2004). Finally, the key terms used for measuring the improvement of slums (e.g., 'access', 'improved' and 'sufficient') are far too abstract for capturing and monitoring change rigorously (Cohen, 2014).

As this section has discussed, the continued failure of implemented slum policies has, in reality, facilitated the propagation of slums. One could argue that this is due to the inability of governments to understand fully the needs of slum dwellers and incorporate their needs when developing appropriate policies (Fekade, 2000). In addition, the locational decisions of slum dwellers, rural-to-urban migration and poor urban governance in general are all interrelated factors that have contributed to the growth of slums. Taken holistically, these various factors are all important for designing more appropriate slum policies. Failure to do so will only lead to the continued growth and persistence of slums. However, to grapple fully with the problems discussed above, we would argue that one needs also to understand the various operational challenges encountered when trying to address the issue of slums, which we turn to next.

Classification of Slums

The case studies show that many cities do make distinctions between types of slums. In general, there is a clear separation between slums proper, on the one hand, and shanties or spontaneous housing and urban development, on the other. This distinction is often made on the basis of combinations of physical location and legality status of the built structure, urban zoning, land invasion and informal construction.

The term 'slum', or its equivalent local term, often refers to inner-city residential areas that were laid out and built several decades ago in line with

the then prevailing urban planning, zoning and construction standards, but which, over time, have progressively become physically dilapidated and overcrowded to the point where they became the near exclusive residential zone for lowest income groups.

The term 'informal settlement' often refers to illegal or semi-legal urbanization processes, or unsanctioned subdivisions of land at the (then) urban periphery where land invasion took place – often by squatters, who erected housing units usually without formal permission of the land owner and often with materials and building standards not in line with the criteria of the local building code. This type of slum is usually referred to as a shanty, or squatter settlement. Depending upon the local conditions, many local authorities recognize derivatives of this form of informal shelter as separate types of slums, such as informal settlements on vacant urban lots or on precarious urban sites along canals, on road reserves or adjacent to landfill areas.

Several of the cities without a formal slum definition nevertheless apply terms or concepts that denote different types of slum housing depending upon the construction type, location, legality status, etc. This is notably the case for Beirut, Colombo, Havana, Los Angeles, Lusaka, Mexico City, Moscow and Naples.

4.5 CULTURE OF SLUMS

The predominantly rural and agricultural nature of Indian society can no longer be called "A nation of villages". Four fifths of India's population presently resides in its half million villages. Today several cities of India are huge metropolitan areas and these cities have become centers of modern technology and the hope of future progress. Among the nations of the world, India is being increasingly judged by the stature and condition of its great cities, where lie the core of its commercial and industrial power and the strength of its transportation, distribution and communication system. The cities of India have played an important role in breaking away from tradition-bound social practices and from the cities most of the modernization processes in the country radiate. Political and social reform movements have largely originated in the cities and have then spread out.

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such commercial enterprises as the cinema and gambling. Most slum dwellers are apathetic and suffer a great sense of futility. They have little community pride or even consensus, and they often blame the local authorities for their plight. They have become antagonistic towards them, seldom co-operating with municipal personnel in efforts to improve their immediate areas or the city as a whole.

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4.6 LET US SUM UP

India is urbanising. This transition, which will see India's urban population reach a figure close to 600 million by 2031, is not simply a shift of demographics. It places cities and towns at the centre of India's development trajectory. In the coming decades, the urban sector will play a critical role in

the structural transformation of the Indian economy and in sustaining the high rates of economic growth. Ensuring high quality public services for all in the cities and towns of India is an end in itself, but it will also facilitate the full realisation of India's economic potential. India's economic growth momentum cannot be sustained if urbanisation is not actively facilitated. Nor can poverty be addressed if the needs of the urban poor are isolated from the broader challenges of managing urbanisation. Cities will have to become the engines of national development. India cannot afford to get its urban strategy wrong, but it cannot get it right without bringing about a fundamental shift in the mindset which separates rural from the urban**.**

4.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning od Slums ?
2. Define the Slums in India ?

4.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Slums may be characterized as areas of substandard housing conditions within a city. A slum is always an area. The term housing conditions refers to actual living conditions rather than mere physical appearance of the area. The substandard is to be taken not in an objective or technological but rather in a relative social sense i.e. compared with the recognized standard at a given time in a specific country
2. The definition of what constitutes a slum, like that which constitutes an urban area more generally (Dorélien et al., 2013), differs by country (United Nations, 2014), state (Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, 2008) and even city (O'Hare et al., 1998). Recent research has also indicated that slums may be more heterogeneous than is often assumed (Goli et al., 2011, Chandrasekhar and Montgomery, 2009, Agarwal and Taneja, 2005); many poor people like pavement dwellers do not live in slums and are therefore not "counted" by the standard definitions (Agarwal, 2011).

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UNIT V URBAN PROBLEMS: HOUSING, DRUG ADDICTION, JUVENILE DELINQUENCY, PROSTITUTION, AND POLLUTION.

Structure

5.0 Introduction

This study presents a sociological analysis of poverty, specifically focusing on urban poverty the theoretical framework emphasises the main approaches, which define poverty-the cultural perspective and the situational perspective. The study not only tries to understand simply the human reality of what it means to be poor, but also the central paradox of modern India, half a century of democracy, economic growth and constitutional commitment to social justice has not lessened the acute, mass poverty of the country. The first section tries to examine the socio-historical analysis of poverty studies and research of poverty in India. The early studies of poverty in Britain and also in US focus largely on urban poverty. On the other hand in India much of the research on poverty in the period since independence was driven in by the concern for growth and development. Income and expenditure were considered to be better measured of poverty which relied on data provided by National Sample Survey (NSS). But several issues pertaining to urban poverty in India still lie unanswered. Therefore this study tries to expand its framework beyond the analysis of calorie consumption and include dimensions of well being other than nutritional intake like housing, health, education, impact of globalization, access to basic amenities etc. and it also tries to analyze the label of facilities across different regions. This unit also undertakes a systematic study of globalization and poverty as well as the changing policy perspective on poverty. The recent focus on poverty has shown that in individual countries poverty is caused by

(i) Paucity of resources or by failure of economic development

(ii) Failure of state

(iii) Transition from state control economy to market

based economy.

This paper attempts to first define poverty, identify poor geographical area and tries to carry out systematic investigation with an open mind to understand the phenomena of poverty and adjudge the strategies employed to combat it, which will help building a new theoretical perspective.

5.1 URBAN PROBLEMS

Most of the counties including India is experiencing rapid urbanization. The rn unplanned urbanization particularly in developing countries has culminated several problems. This rapid urbanization envisages that within the next two to three decades, there will be need for increased demand for basic infiastructure, housing and living facilities in major urban centres. The demand for clean water sanitation, solid waste disposal, sewage for liquid waste, health and transport facilities will enhance manifold**.**

5.2 HOUSING

Housing - Housing provision for the growing urban population will be the biggest challenge before the government. The growing cost of houses comparison to the income of the urban middle class, has made it impossible for majority of lower income groups and are residmg in congested accommodation and many of those are devoid of proper ventilation, lighting, water supply, sewage system, etc. For instance in Delhi, the current estimate is of a shortage of 3,00,000 dwelling units the coming decades. The United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS) introduced the concept of "Housing Poverty" which includes "Individuals and households who lack safe, secure and healthy shelter, with basic infrastructure such as piped water and adequate provision for sanitation, drainage and the removal of household waste".

Housing sector is a major contributor to GDP of a country. As per the Central Statistical Organisation (CSO) estimates, housing sector’s contribution to GDP for the period 2003-04 is 4.5 per cent. Real estate is one of the fastest-growing sectors in India, with the housing sector growing at 34 per cent annually, according

to the data from National Housing Bank (NHB). It is estimated that 80 per cent of the country’s real estate market accounts for residential property.

In urban India, the share of rental housing is low compared to developed countries, where it is between 40 and 50 percent. The share of rental housing in urban areas is 30 percent, according to NSS 65th Round, 2008-09. In most cities in India, over 30 percent of the population lives in slum like conditions. India’s urbanization is only around 30 per cent, while in other countries, it is much higher. According to McKinsey Report 2010, 70 per cent of all jobs in the next 20 years will originate in urban areas. Seeing the above facts, it can be concluded that while it is very important to make investments in urban areas in order to ensure better productivity, housing is an area which will need utmost

attention in the times to come. Housing is an integral part of town planning. Residential land use constitutes approximately

around 30 to 40 per cent of the total land use of the city, depending on various conditions. Amongst all the land uses in the city master plan, residential land use usually is the largest portion.

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain housing concept, types and classification
- Discuss factors influencing housing pattern and housing shortage
- Describe affordable and inclusive housing
- Analyse housing policies and plans

HOUSING: CONCEPT AND TYPES

The Census of India provides various definitions of terms used commonly in the

housing sector. Some of the key terms used in Census 2001 and their definitions

are given here below:

a) Census House: A 'census house' is either a building or part of it used or recognised as a separate unit because of having an independent main entrance from the road or common courtyard or staircase, etc. It may be occupied, vacant or used for either residential or non-residential purposes. If a building has a number of flats or blocks, which are independent units having separate entrances of their own from the road or a common staircase of a common courtyard leading to a main gate these will be considered as separate census houses.

b) Household: A 'household' is usually a group of persons who normally live together and take their meals from a common kitchen unless the exigencies of work prevent any of them from doing so. The persons in a household may be related or unrelated or a mix of both. However, if a group of unrelated persons live in a Census house but do not take their meals from the common kitchen, then they will not collectively constitute a household. Each such person should be treated as a separate household. The important link in finding out whether it is a household or not is a common kitchen. There may be one member households, two member households or multi-member households. In a few situations, it may be difficult to apply the definition of household strictly as given above. For example, a person living alone in a census house, whether cooking or not cooking meals will have to be treated as a household. Similarly, if husband and wife or a group of related persons are living together in a census house but not cooking their meals it will also constitute a normal

household.

c) Institutional Household: A group of unrelated persons who live in an institution and take their meals from a common kitchen is called an

'Institutional Household'. Examples of Institutional Households are boarding houses, messes, hostels, hotels, rescue homes, observation homes, beggars' homes, jails, ashrams, old age homes, children homes, orphanages, etc

d) Permanent House: Houses with wall and roof made of permanent materials. Wall can be of G. I., Metal, Asbestos sheets, Burnt bricks, Stone or Concrete. Roof can be made up of Tiles, Slate, G. I., Metal, Asbestos sheets, Brick, Stone or Concrete.

e) Semi Permanent House: Either wall or roof is made of permanent material

(and the other having been made of temporary material).

f) Temporary House: Houses with wall and roof made of temporary material. Wall can be made of grass, thatch, bamboo etc., plastic, polythene, mud, unbaked brick or wood. Roof can be made of grass, thatch, bamboo, wood, mud, plastic or polythene.

g) Serviceable Temporary: Wall is made of mud, unbaked bricks or wood.

h) Non-Serviceable Temporary: Wall is made of grass, thatch, bamboo etc., plastic or polythene.

FACTORS INFLUENCING HOUSING PATTERN

Factors influencing housing pattern are as follows:

Social, Economic and Political Factors

Housing has many social, economic and political dimensions. Indian society comprises of great diversities. India is a federal union of states comprising twenty nine states and seven union territories. The states and territories are further subdivided into districts and so on. The patterns of social organisations vary across the country. There had always been a distinct imprint on the nature of housing settlement structure in the past. Housing design is often dictated by social requirements. Lots of literatures have emerged in the country on the way housing design is done. Traditional spatial patterns and settlement structure are governed

by social requirements. Both at the settlement level as well as within the dwelling unit, space is organised in conformity with the social considerations. In various cities of India, the location of neighbourhoods is made up of same castes and professions. Similarly, caste grouping also takes place such as 'Agraharam' or Agrahara is a neighbourhood, which comprises of Brahmin quarter of a heterogeneous village or to any village inhabited by Brahmins in South India.

The rural areas as well the social patterns of various communities, such as landlords and tenants, workers and so on defines housing patterns and social status, which is reflected in housing form. Economic factors also govern housing patterns. It is obvious that the rich people have huge mansions, while the middle income families have more modest homes and those at the bottom

of the pyramid struggle to live in small spaces. Further, to the national economy as a whole, housing is a major contributor. Investments in housing have many tangible and intangible benefits. The housing industry has many forward and backward linkages and there are as many as 260 industries which are involved in the process.

Therefore, housing contributes greatly to the economy in terms of employment generation and income generation. A large number of skilled, semi skilled, rural and women workers gain employment through house construction. Rural folk also get supplementary income by participating in construction activities. It also contributes to national income and the GDP. The Income Tax Department levies Capital Gains Tax on long term capital gains on sale of property- be it residential or any other. Every year, the Union Finance Minister presents a national budget in which various duties and levies as well as concessions are announced. The entire housing finance industry which is a multi-crore business is an outcome of the housing activity. Renting out of housing benefits, house owner is also thereby a contributor to the micro economy. On the fiscal side, housing contributes substantially to the finances of the urban local bodies by way of ‘house tax’ or ‘property tax’. Housing has serious political connotations. Housing being a basic need, it is high on political agenda and forms a key element of political rhetoric. Political parties across the country want to win the support of the industry by giving incentives and sympathy of the public, especially the low income and the poor, by regularizing squatting and unauthorized land colonization.

Influence of Climate, Materials and Technology

Housing form, technology and materials used for construction vary across the country. It depends on physical factors, such as climate (including temperature, humidity and rainfall) and availability of natural resources. In the coastal areas, the climate is moderate and there is less of difference between the summers and winters. Humidity is high and therefore, there is a need for wind flow in order to attain thermal comfort. As there are incessant rains, so the traditional house form here has emerged with spacious houses with central courtyard, large windows for free passage of air and high gable roofs to withstand the rains. Further, use of locally available stone, brick and timber is common. The availability of clay has also ensured that burnt clay tiles are put to use. On the contrary, in the arid climate of Rajasthan, where the summers are sweltering and the winters are chilling, rains are also scanty, in this continental climate, thick walls with small openings, shaded courts and narrow lanes to get as much shade as possible and flat roofs are popular.

However, in the hilly areas it’s quite different as it is very cold and sunshine is always desirable, locally available stones are used, as against brick. There are no courtyards as there is paucity of space on the hill slopes. Timber and tiled roofs are common. Construction is often light in order to take care of earthquakes which are quite common here. ‘Icra walling’ and use of bamboo is popular. One can see that traditional housing has always been in tune with nature.

5.3 DRUG ADDICTION

Any substance (usually chemical) which influences our bodies or emotions when consumed may be called a drug, i.e. it is a chemical substance, that, when put into your body can change the way the body works and the mind thinks. These substances may be medicinal i.e. prescribed by a doctor for reducing minor ailments or problems, e.g. lack of sleep, headache, tension, etc. but are also

i) used without medical advice,

ii) used for an excessively long period of time,

iii) used for reason other than medical ones.

The use of such drugs is usually legal.

Some drugs may be no medicinal in nature. Their use is illegal e.g. heroin. Another group of drugs are those that are legal, but are harmful for the person if consumed in excess, regularly, e.g. alcohol. There are other substances like cigarettes, coffee, tea etc. which can be termed as socially accepted legal drugs. But these are not seen as harmful. Some drugs like alcohol, brown sugar, etc. are dangerous and addictive. It is these drugs that will be discussed in the next subsection.

Drug Use and Abuse

Using drugs to cure or prevent an illness or improve one's health may be called drug 'use'. Using drugs (medicinal/non-medicinal) in quantity, strength, frequency or manner that damages the physical or mental functioning of an individual, is termed as drug abuse. This means that even taking medicines in excess or too often or too long or for the wrong reasons or in the wrong combination implies drug 'abuse'.

Addiction, Tolerance and Dependence

Such 'abuse' leads to addiction, i.e. inability to lead a regular life in the absence of the drug/alcohol. It causes tolerance and dependence, and withdrawal symptoms may occur in its absence. Explained simply, tolerance means the need for more quantity and more frequent use of the drug to produce the same effect as before. Dependence can be both physical and psychological. Physical means that the body cannot function without taking the drug. Psychological dependence means constantly thinking about the drug and its use, continuously trying to get it and being emotionally and mentally unable to lead one's regular life without it. Some drugs like cannabis produce only psychological dependence while others like opium and heroin, produce both physical and psychological dependence.

If the drug consumption is suddenly stopped after one became a dependent on it, withdrawal symptoms occur. These range from mild discomfort to severe

vomiting and convulsions, depending on the drug being used. All drug addicts may not experience the severe withdrawal symptoms shown in TV serials and films. The severity of these symptoms varies with.

i) The type of drug

ii) The amount regularly consumed

iii) The duration of taking the drug and the treatment provided in special medical units, where such withdrawal is usually managed.

Helping the person through 'withdrawal' from drugs (usually medially supervised) so that the person's body gradually gets released from the clutches of the addiction, is known as detoxification.

It is important to note that withdrawal symptoms make it, especially difficult to give up drugs as they are very unpleasant. The user is thus afraid to quit drugs, even if he/she knows the harmful effects of drugs on his/here life.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1 Write the meaning of Housing ?

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2. Explain the concept of Drug Addiction ?

____

FACTS ABOUT NARCOTIC DRUGS

A drug is a substance that affects feelings, thinking or behaviour, initially due to chemical reactions in the brain. Alcohol is also a drug in that sense. Drugs are consumed by eating, smoking, inhaling, sniffing, drinking or by injections. Excluding alcohol, drugs an be classified as follow:

i) Stimulants–Drugs that increase the activity of the brain.

ii) Depressants–Drugs that slow down the activity of the brain.

iii) Hallucinogens–Drugs that change the way we see, hear and feel.

iv) Cannabis–Drugs like Ganja, Hashish and Bhang produced from the hempplant.

v) Opiates or drugs obtained from opium or artificially produced substitutes which have opium like effects

Stimulants

Stimulants are popularly known as 'uppers', pep pills or 'speed' as they give a feeling of excitement and elation. Amphetamines are the most common ones in this category. They are used often by students and sportsmen to increase alertness temporarily and give instant extra energy to study, or participate in sport for long periods. The body can consume and tolerate large amount of its intake. Stimulants are usually swallowed. Cocaine is the most dangerous stimulant. Prepared from the coca plant in South America, Cocaine is snorted, i.e. inhaled through the nose. 'Crack" is another form of cocaine and heroin that is becoming increasingly popular in the West. Though cocaine is physically not addicting, it is highly additive psychologically. Some of its effects include anxiety, depression and fainting. Long-term effects include weight loss, feeling of being persecuted, loss of sleep and restlessness.

Depressants

Depressants are popularly known as 'downers'. Tranquilizers and sedatives fall in this category as they make us relaxed and calm. Usually they come in the form of tablets like Mandrax, Valium and Librium. Alcohol, which also falls in this category is dangerously combined with tablets; this combination can lead to death. Another type of depressant pill contains chemical called barbiturates which are often found in sleeping pills. These are stronger than tranquilisers and produce dependence. An over-dose to these can lead to death while sudden withdrawal of the drug can be dangerous, if unsupervised medically.

Hallucinogens

These drugs are often all "psychedelic drugs". They cause one to see and hear things in a highly detailed but different way. The type of company has a great deal of influence on the effects experienced. Intense emotions can be experienced, sensations can be heightened, and lack of awareness of time, place and identity can occur. LSD (Lysergic Aids Diethylamide) or 'Aid' is the best known of these drugs, the effect of which (called 'trip') can last for several days. A tiny amount of it is adequate to give a feeling of being 'high'. Mixed with 'speed', it can result in a 'bad trip'. Also, taken without proper guidance from others, it has been known to lead even to death. In India, 'datura' a plant, is known to have even a stronger effect than LSD, sometimes leading to mental instability. Datura can be smoked as dried leaves, eaten or drunk as an extract of the stems, roots and seeds

Cannabis

Ganja, hashish (charas), and bhang are all known as cannabis drugs as they are produced from different parts of the hemp or cannabis plant. These drugs are the most widely used in the world. Ganja (known also as grass, pot, joint, weed,

marijuana, reefer and dope, etc.) is smoked with cigarettes while charas is prepared in black ‘golis’ and is put into cigarettes for smoking or eaten with food. Bhang is usually smoked or drunk and even eaten in a paste form. The immediate effects of smoking cannabis are a sense of relaxation, and a tendency to feel and see more sharply. It increases the current emotion and lowers inhibition. More strikingly it may hang one’s sense of time and movement. It may damage one’s ability to perform tasks that require concentration, quick action and coordination. It may produce psychological dependence. Its major danger, however, is that its consumption leads to taking of stronger or ‘hard’ drugs, after some time.

Opiates

There are three major types of opiate, viz. opium itself, heroin and morphine, all of which come from the poppy plant. Opiates can be natural or produced in the laboratory. Opium itself is commonly taken by villagers in India and does not always cause social problems, if rarely consumed. However, for many, it becomes an addiction, leading to mental and physical dependence. Morphine which is used as a pain-killer is highly addictive. Heroin, however, is the most devastating laboratory product of morphine, and the most commonly used. Heroin is several times stronger than morphine, both in its effect and in the addition that is caused. Pure heroin is expensive. Therefore, its unrefined form viz. ‘brown sugar’, ‘smack’ or ‘gard’ had become very popular. Its initial price is cheap, making it easily available to the poor. It can be injected or smoked, but is usually “chased”. i.e. it is placed on a spoon or silver foil and the smoke that comes out when the foils is heated from below, is taken in through the mouth. A highly addicting drug—both physically and psychologically—it is the most abused drug in India these days. In addition to the above, there are other artificially produced opiates known as ’methadone’ and ‘pethidine’, the former being used in the West to replace the more addictive substance i.e. heroin for addicts.

5.4 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

A crime is termed “juvenile delinquency” when committed by a young person under a certain age. The age of the juvenile delinquent is not consistently set around the world. In India, this age limit is set at 16 years for boys and 18 years for girls. The other aspect in case of young persons is that there are certain behaviour which would not be considered criminal in nature if committed by adults, but they will be taken note of as crime if committed by youth. For example, a person below the age of 16 years who:

i) is uncontrollable by his parents or guardians by reason of being wayward or by being habitually disobedient.

ii) Habitually plays truant from school

iii) Lives without ostensible means of subsistence

iv) Habitually behaves in such a way as to endanger the morale or health of

himself/herself.

All these types of juvenile delinquents can be dealt with by the police and courts. Ever since society was organized and the codes of conduct were formulated, there have always been individuals who have violated these codes. Always, and everywhere, some juveniles and many adults have flouted the patterns of permitted behaviour. The increase in such behaviour has reached alarming proportions. These unlawful activities have become intolerable in many part of the world. In comparison, we in India may be considered somewhat fortunate. However, in absolute terms the loss of life, property, and the pain inflicted is reaching quite serious dimensions.

These days, on an average, one person is murdered every seventeen minutes. Twenty seven females are raped every day. A riot takes place every five minutes and forty-seven persons are kidnapped or abducted every day. A robbery or docoity is committed every sixteen minutes and three hundred and fifty three houses are broken into and burgled every day. And one theft takes place every minute and a half. The value of property stolen annually is in the range of three hundred and thirty five crores of rupees of which only about 1/3 is recovered by the police. When we consider Indian Penal Code offences (like murder, rape, kidnapping, abduction, riot, robbery, burglary, theft, cheating, etc.), little more than twenty three lakh persons were arrested by the police during 1989. Additionally, there were about forty lakh persons arrested for offences under the Local and Special Laws like Prohibition Act, Gambling Act, Excise Act, Indian Railways Act, Immoral Traffic Prevention Act, Narcotics Act, etc. Out of these total arrests of sixty three lakh persons, juveniles accounted for about thirty six thousand —24,777 boys and 11,615 girls.

5.5 PROSTITUTION

Prostitution is not an unknown phenomenon. It has been of ancient origin and has been thriving in various forms with social sanctions. Prostitution is one of the branches of the sex industry. Estimates place the annual revenue generated from the global prostitution industry to be over $100 billion. Associated with crimes and torture, it has become a taunting human rights problem today. In 2007, the Ministry of Women and Child Development reported the presence of 2.8 million sex workers in India, with 35.47 percent of them entering the trade before the age of 18 years. The number of prostitutes has also doubled in the last decade. Though China has more prostitutes than India, fewer of them are forced into prostitution against their will. For Kathleen Barry (1994), a sociologist and feminist, 'a prostitute is a woman reduced to her sexual utility'. She attaches three qualities to female sexual slavery; being trapped, having no freedom, and experiencing violence and exploitation. Barry also explains how for women who have only sex to sell and with no other means to sell, prostitution is an alternative.

Trafficking

Trafficking has become the third highest income earner after the illegal arms trade and drug trafficking. Kristof and Wudunn define trafficking, technically, as taking someone (by force or deception) across an international border. They quote that the U.S. State department has estimated that between 600,000 and 800,000 people are trafficked across international borders each year and 80% of them are women and girls, mostly for sexual exploitation. According to them, trafficking has increased because of three reasons. Firstly, when Communism collapsed in Eastern Europe, the power vacuum was filled by criminal gangs. As a result, capitalism not only created markets for rice and potatoes but also for flesh trade. Poverty and international tourist industry make millions of women and girl children cross national boundaries for commercial sex where female bodies and labour are bought and sold. Secondly, globalisation has increased the number of such sex slaves. Thirdly, because of the fear of AIDS, customers prefer young girls so that they will be less likely to be infected and also because of the myth that AIDS can be cured by sex with virgin girls (Kristof and Wudunn, 2009, pp.10-12).

According to the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, trafficking is:

"…the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring of recipt of persons, by means of threat or use of force or coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person for the purposes of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs" (cited in Social Development Notes, 2009, p.1).

Trafficking of women and children is under the control of insidious Mafia groups in collision with local police. Statistics show that the number of girl children trafficked is on the increase every year. Every day, one million children are affected in Asia alone while two million are trafficked every year across borders. Sex tourism has become a booming industry. Thailand's economy thrives on sex tourism. Almost 49% of the tourists come for sex with children and come mostly from East Asia, the United States of America, and Europe.

Prostitution by Choice or Force

Feminists like Kathleen Barry, Catharine MacKinnon and Laura Lederer hold that prostitution is not a conscious and calculated choice of women. Dr.V.Mohini Giri, who was the Chairperson of the National Commission for Women, India, in her analysis on the Indian situation states that there are four distinct ways why women enter into the flesh trade:

I) Girls are kidnapped, induced, allured and sold (in many cases by parents themselves). Nearly 80-85 percent comes into prostitution through this

pathway.

II) About 10 percent are off-springs of the prostitutes- unwed or wedded. In such cases, even though the mothers do not like their daughters to follow them in their profession, the powerful nexus of Gharwalis (brothel keepers), pimps, and pahalwans (musclemen) decide otherwise.

III) Then there is caste/community specific prostitution. Going from generation after generation, this is the type of child-prostitution which is practiced in specific areas in some communities under the gaze of the family itself.

IV) And finally we have special types – the profession with links in some of the religious customs. Instances are Devadasis in Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Odisha and Maharastra, Bhavanis in Goa, Kudikars in West Coast, Johins in Andhra Pradesh, Thevaradiyar in Tamil Nadu, Basavis in Karnataka and Muralis, Jogateens and aradhinis in Maharashtra (refer Giri, 2001).

Liberal feminism which advocates individual's free will conceives prostitution as a contract in a private business transaction. On the other hand, radical feminism views a prostitute as a human being who has been reduced to a piece of merchandise. The liberal contends that a woman is free to enter into contracts. However, the radical feminist does not believe that a prostitute's desire to enter into such a "contract" is done of her own free will. Even if prostitution has been an independent decision, it is generally the result of extreme poverty and lack of opportunity, or of serious underlying problems, such as drug addiction, past trauma (especially child sexual abuse) and other unfortunate circumstances. Nicholas D. Kristof and Sheryl WuDunn (2009, p. 5) quote one 2008 study on Indian brothels and say that out of India and Nepali prostitutes who started as teenagers, about half said they had been coerced into the brothels; women who began working in their twenties were more likely to have made the choice themselves, often

Commodified Bodies to feed their children. Those who start out enslaved often accept their fate eventually and sell sex willingly, because they know nothing else and are too stigmatized to hold other jobs.

Most suggest that valid consent to prostitution is impossible or at least unlikely. It is found out that impoverished women, women at low level of education, women from the most disadvantaged racial and ethnic minorities are overrepresented in prostitution all over the world. "If prostitution is a free choice, why are the women with the fewest choices the ones most often found doing it?" asks Catherine MacKinnon (1987). Most prostitutes are in a very difficult period of their lives and most want to leave this occupation. MacKinnon (1987) argues that 'in prostitution, women have sex with men they would never otherwise have sex with. The money thus acts as a form of force, not as a measure of consent. It acts like physical force does in rape'. For radical feminists, this is because prostitution is always a coercive sexual practice.

Decriminalisation

If prostitution is an economic exchange in the flesh trade, it calls for

decriminalisation, legalisation, and normalisation of prostitution. Since the mid-1970s, sex workers across the world have organized, demanding the decriminalisation of prostitution. Sex worker activists argue that sex workers should have the same basic human rights, labour rights as other working people, equal legal protection, improved working condition and the right to travel and receive social benefits as the pension. But, Kristof and WuDunn (2009) do not subscribe to the legalize-and-regulate model as it simply has not worked very well in countries where prostitution is often coerced. They advocate a law enforcement strategy that pushes for fundamental change in police attitudes and regular police inspections to check for underage girls or anyone being held against their will. In 1985, feminists and sex workers developed the "World Charter for Prostitutes states that that prostitutes should be guaranteed "all human rights and civil liberties," including the

freedom of speech, travel, immigration, work, marriage, and motherhood, and the right to unemployment insurance, health insurance and housing" (cited in Ditmore, 2006, p.625).

Behind all these discussions lingers a sad truth, as professed by a prostitute to Kate Millett, "It is not sex the prostitute is really made to sell: it is degradation. And the buyer is not buying sexuality but power over another human being …" (Millett, 1971, p. 88). In fact, the self-denigration and shame that millions of girls and women suffer in the brothels cannot be restored by any formal law.

Legal Status of Prostitution

In India, prostitution (exchanging sex for money) is legal, but related activities such as soliciting sex, operating brothels and pimping are illegal. A sex worker can be punished for soliciting or seducing in public, while clients can be punished for sexual activity in proximity to a public place.

The primary law dealing with the status of sex workers is the 1956 law, referred to as 'The Immoral Traffic (Suppression) Act' (SITA). According to this law, prostitutes can practice their trade privately but cannot legally solicit customers in public. Organized prostitution (brothels, prostitution rings, pimping, etc) is illegal. Unlike the case of other professions, sex workers are not protected under normal labour laws. In practice SITA is not commonly used. The Indian Penal Code (IPC) which predates the SITA is often used to charge sex workers with vague crimes such as "public indecency" or being a "public nuisance" without explicitly defining what these consist of.

Recently, the old law has been amended as 'The Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act' or PITA. Attempts to amend this to criminalize clients have been opposed by the Health Ministry. The main points of the PITA deal with defining and punishing sex workers, clients, pimps and babus, and brothel keepers, procuring and trafficking. Prostitution and its legal status is still a contentious issue in India.

To reduce the destructive impacts of sexual objectification and commodification of women's bodies, one cannot depend on laws alone. Much can be done by women and men, hand-in-hand in solidarity and by informed and gender-sensitized individuals. Transformation should occur at all levels to build a healthy on man-woman relationship: individual, social, economic, political in collaboration with community, social bodies, governmental and non-governmental institutions.

Think about what we can do in writing, arts, reporting, media production, training, science and technology, school curriculum, socio-cultural practices, legal status, policies and rights, collective movements, and in our personal relationships and ideologies, to bring about positive changes in the representations of women's bodies.

5.6 POLLUTION

According to the Environmental Protection Act of 1986 "Pollutants are the harmful solid, liquid or gaseous substances present in such concentration in the environment which tend to be injurious for the whole living biota". The relatively benign products of human activity will be regarded as pollutants, ifthey precipitate negative effects later on. For example, the nitrogen oxides produced by industry is treated as pollutant although they themselves are not harmful. Because in presence of sunlight it is converted to smog, which has adverse affects on the human well-being. Again whether something is a pollutant or not depends on the context. For example presence of carbon dioxide is essential in the atmosphere for the survival ofthe biota. But carbon dioxide elnissions are sometimes referred to as pollution, because it's increased level in the atmosphere brings harmful changes in the Earth's climate.

Sources of Pollutants

Pollutants may originate from both the natural processes (such as forest fires, volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, tsunami etc.) or through anthropogenic activities (such as industrialization, transportatio~~ etc.). But the pollutants from anthropogenic activities are more damaging because they are released in the periphery of human settlements. So generally the environmental contaminants that are resulted from the human activities are referred to as pollutants. Some sources of pollutants, such as nuclear power plants or oil tankers, can release very severe pollution when accidents occur. Some of the more common pollutants are: chlorinated hydrocarbons, heavy metals like lead (in lead paint and until recently in gasoline), cadmium (in rechargeable batteries), chromium, zinc, arsenic and benzene.

Classification of Pollutants

Pollutants can be classified in a number of ways: For example, a) On the basis of their forms they exist in the environment after their release:

i) Primary Pollutants: Those pollutants, which are directly released into the

ambient environment from their sources are called primary pollutants. Examples are sulfur dioxide, oxides of nitrogen etc. They are emitted into the environment due to burning of fossil fuel and remain in the same form for a longer period of time.

ii) Secondary Pollutants: These pollutants are not directly released into the environment from any operating source. Instead they are transformed from primary pollutants due to their reaction with the environmental components. For example sulfates, nitrates, ozone, smog, peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) etc. Sulfates are formed from the oxidation of sulfur dioxide, which is a primary pollutant.

b) From ecosystem point of view they are divided as:

i) Biodegradable Pollutants: Pollutants, which may be broken down by microorganisms to harmless constituents and are reused in the biogeochemical cycle, are called biodegradable. These include domestic wastes, organic matter of plant and animal origin, faecal matter, blood, urine etc. Technology and Environmental Education

ii) Non-biodegradable Pollutants: These include pollutants, which are not broken by the micro-organisms. They may undergo a change of form or chemical combination. These include heavy metals, phenolic compounds and D.D:T. etc. These pollutants are very injurious to the biotic community

even in a very minute quantity.

c) On the basis nf the range of their effect they are again divided into:

i) Local pollutants: These are pollutants whose concentrations exceed the prescribed limit within a small area or volume of air, soil or water. Their residence time is low. For example, coal burning produces smoke, which insufficient concentrations can be health hazard in the vicinity of the source only. But after sometime it will be diluted or absorbed by sinks.

ii) Global pollutants: These are pollutants whose concentration levels have cumulatively built-up in the environment over years and their concentrations are steadily rising. The increased concentration ofcarbon dioxide and chloro flouro carbons, which have global impact in the form of global temperature increase and ozone layer depletion respectively fall under this category. Awareness of all kinds df pollutants is necessary for conscious citizen who seek to limit the human impact on the environment.

Types of Pollution

Pollution is classified in two ways either according to the environment (air, water, soil, noise, thermal etc.) in which it occurs or according to the pollutants by which they are caused.

a) Classification based on environment: They can be categorized as:

i) Air pollution

ii) Water pollution

iii) Soil pollutio~l

b) Classification according to the pollutants: The pollution caused by human activities may be ofa number oftypes. For example, radioactive pollution, sewage pollution, pesticide pollution, noise pollution, thermal pollution, plastic pollution, marine pollution, smoke pollution, smog pollution, chemical pollution, industrial pollution, metal toxicity pollution, drug pollution, biological pollution, silt pollution, soap and detergent pollution, oil pollution etc. To make the environmental pollution study easier it will be useful to study different types of pollutions sphere wise.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1.Write the meaning of Juvenile Delinquency ?

2.Write the Types of Pollution ?

5.7 LETS SUM UP

Urbanization is taking place at a rapid pace in the cities of developing countries mainly due to rural-urban migration. Rural-urban migration is the movement of people fiom the countryside to the cities. This has resulted in rapid urban growth and the proportion of people living in towns and cities has been increasing. The rural-urban migration is caused as a result of push and pull factors. The major push factors are natural disasters, poor living conditions, agricultural change, unemployment, war and conflict, etc. Some of the major pull factors are employment, higher incomes, better healthcare and education, attraction to urban facilities and way of life and protection fiom conflict, etc. This rapid urbanization results in problems like pollution, lack of clean drinking water, employment opportunities, traffic problems, poverty, substance abuse, garbage disposal and sewage problems.

However, the growth of urban population in developing countries is rapidly changing the demographic profile and at the same time this pattern is also is fraught with enormous tension and tremendously complex problems. However, urbanization would be a blessing only when urban problems would be solved through economic efficiency and vast growth of productive forces.

5.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Housing
2. Explain the Concept of Drug Addiction
3. Write the meaning of Juvenile Delinquency ?
4. Write types of Pollution ?

5.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Housing - Housing provision for the growing urban population will be the biggest challenge before the government. The growing cost of houses comparison to the income of the urban middle class, has made it impossible for majority of lower income groups and are residmg in congested accommodation and many of those are devoid of proper ventilation, lighting, water supply, sewage system, etc.

2. Any substance (usually chemical) which influences our bodies or emotions when consumed may be called a drug, i.e. it is a chemical substance, that, when put into your body can change the way the body works and the mind thinks. These substances may be medicinal i.e. prescribed by a doctor for reducing minor ailments or problems, e.g. lack of sleep, headache, tension, etc. but are also

ii) used for an excessively long period of time,

i) used without medical advice,

iii) used for reason other than medical ones.

The use of such drugs is usually legal.

3. A crime is termed “juvenile delinquency” when committed by a young person under a certain age. The age of the juvenile delinquent is not consistently set around the world. In India, this age limit is set at 16 years for boys and 18 years for girls. The other aspect in case of young persons is that there are certain behaviour which would not be considered criminal in nature if committed by adults, but they will be taken note of as crime if committed by youth. For example, a person below the age of 16 years who:

i) is uncontrollable by his parents or guardians by reason of being wayward or by being habitually disobedient.

ii) Habitually plays truant from school

iii) Lives without ostensible means of subsistence

iv) Habitually behaves in such a way as to endanger the morale or health of himself/herself.

4. Pollution is classified in two ways either according to the environment (air, water, soil, noise, thermal etc.) in which it occurs or according to the pollutants by which they are caused.

a) Classification based on environment: They can be categorized as:

i) Air pollution

ii) Water pollution

iii) Soil pollutio~l

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UNIT VI URBANCOMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT: DEFINITION, CONCEPT, OBJECTIVES AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Structure

6.1 INTRODUCTION

We have discussed the issues and challenges related to urban development in the preceding Unit. But, the urban development issues and challenges can be effectively

Addressed only through propzr policies and programmes of urban development. In

India, the Ministry of Urban Development is responsible for formulating policies,

supporting and monitoring programmes and coordinating the activities of various Central Ministries, State Governments and other nodal authorities in so far as they relate to urban development in the country. Hence, in the present Unit we attempt to present to you a broad picture of the policies and programmes of urban development and their relevance to addressing of the issues and challenges of urban development in India

6.2 URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

A profound change is taking place in public understanding of how society is governed. Whilst governments are responsible for running the country and are held accountable for how they do it, there is a growing appreciation that responsibility and power are much more widely distributed and that another function of government is to support, negotiate and reconcile that dispersal of power. Modern developments are too complex, fast-moving and diverse to be micromanaged from the centre.et things have to be held together by common aims and transparent structures. Government remains the essential,

accountable focal point of power but its job is changing to some degree from delivery to enabling.

Of course, no government wants to – or could – simply let go of the power it has, or can avoid being held accountable for its actions and the delivery of public services. So the shift to an enabling role requires a complex, paradoxical, partial transfer of power and responsibility. Inevitably this can face resistance and tensions. Community development helps people and public institutions to respond positively to this transformation by creating additional avenues for participation and releasing new energies from below. It can also assist more traditional forms of government to

Adapt to change and disperse power by stages.

Social work itself is an urban phenomenon. The earliest experience in urban community development (UCD) is lying in several facts.

- Solving social problems like beggary, prostitution, juvenile delinquency.
- Provision of housing facilities like constructing colonies for industrial workers establishing city improvement trusts, cooperative housing societies.
- Undertaking slum clearance programmes.
- Organizing welfare & recreational services like social education child welfare, nutrition programmes, welfare programmes for destitutes, aged & widows etc.

6.3 DEFINITION

Urban Community Development – Definitions

1. Urban community development aims to organize and stimulate community leadership to handle problems on a mutual aid and self help basis
2. Urban community development means the working together of two factors the collective initiative of families living in the same neighborhood and support of their effort through services rendered to them by a higher level of government – (un)
3. Urban community development means integrating the organized popular effort and governmental services for the improvement of conditions in the urban neighborhood (un)
4. Urban community development is a strategy of intervention to combat urban problems through citizen's participation B.Chatterjee
5. Urban community development is one the strategy of intervention to solve some of the problems of the city in general and of the depressed areas in particular.
6. Urban community development is a process by which the city dwellers can become more competent to live with and gain some control over local aspects of a frustrating and fast changing world.
7. Urban community development aims to arouse and organize among urban dwellers recognition of the need for self help, a wider participation in civic affairs and the more effective use of civic amenities.
8. Urban community development seeks to involve the people and to create in

them an urge to change and improve their conditions of living by their own efforts and resources supplemented by utilizing all the opportunities and assistance that are offered by governmental and other voluntary agencies.

6.4 CONCEPT

After independence (1947) – problems in the partition of the country – need to rehabilitate large number of displaced persons – this transformed the "problem solving" "welfare oriented" approach to "development oriented" approach-Establishment of new township like Nilckheri, Faridabad – Providing opportunities for economic improvement.

The Rural Urban Relationship Committee (RURC) After careful observation of earlier projects and experiments, a Rural – Urban Relationship Committee was set up by the Ministry of Health, Government of India to plan and initiate Urban

Community development projects on a nation-wide scale specifying the role of local bodies while implementing them.

The committee observed that there was lack of awareness and interest among urban poor and suggested the need to motivate change and encourage people to exercise their own initiative in planning and carrying out improvement projects based on their felt needs. Technical and welfare resources would then be directed to these communities to support them in their effort.

The establishment of the Rural – Urban Relationship Committee (1963) paved the way for the extensive application of community development method to solve the problems of urban life.

The terms of reference of this committee was:

1. Determination of criteria for the demarcation of urban and rural areas
2. Making recommendations regarding the relationship between the urban local bodies and the panchayat raj institutions.
3. Defining the structure and functions of the urban local bodies.
4. Making recommendations about the lines on which urban community development work may be undertaken in municipal areas.
5. Making recommendations for the more efficient and effective functioning of urban local bodies in general.

The committee submitted an interim report on the programme of urban community development to facilitate the implementation of urban community development in the Third Five Year Plan itself. The Third five-year plan (1965-70) drew pointed attention to the social and economic consequences of the rapid growth of urban population. The plan laid particular emphasis on the need and potentialities of UCD for bringing about social and economic changes in urban communities and create conditions for a better life for its citizens.

Need for (or concept of) urban community development Studies reveal that "In mid 1960s one out of five people lived in cities". Statistics reveals that one out of three persons live in cities now and the projected figure in 2020 is one out

two persons will be leading city life. *House densification* has witnessed a geometric progression since 1975. In 2008 the World's total urban population surpassed the rural population and by 2030 the urban population will account for about 48% of total population.

6.5 OBJECTIVES

Objectives of Urban Community Development

Objectives of the Urban Community Development as mentioned in HUCD Project:

1. Creating a sense of social coherence on a neighborhood basic through corporate civic action and promoting sense of national integration.
2. Developing a sense of belonging to the urban community through increased participation of people in community affairs and creating a way of thinking which concentrates first on solving problems with their own initiative, organization, self help and mutual aid.
3. Bringing about a change in attitudes by creating civic consciousness and by motivating people to improve their conditions of life particularly those affecting social and physical environment.
4. Developing local initiative and identifying and training of local leaders and
5. Ensuring fuller utilization of technical and welfare services by helping the community to locate what help can be had from the municipality or other organizations and how to get it; and what assistance and guidance can be obtained from governmental and higher authorities and how to approach them

In simple terms the objective of u c d is to promote the growth of community life and to promote the growth of community life and to encourage the development of citizens' participation in programmed of self help and civic improvement

Elements of Community Development

(1) Participation of the people
(2) Local initiative
(3) Technical & other support to reinforce initiative, self help and mutual help

6.6 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Today urbanisation refers to population shift from rural to urban areas. In the historical context, urbanisation also referred to the process by which the rural world spawned a new kind of settlement called the city. The study of urban history is an attempt to study both processes. Urban and rural do not refer to separate and distinct processes. Once the city was invented, 'rural' simply represented a form of specialisation. Cities cannot be understood without their rural hinterland and rural peasantry cannot be understood without discovering

its links with the city. So, the study of urban history automatically becomes the study of change in legal-institutional, demographic and cultural processes. Urban history is an enquiry into the economic, political, social and spatial systems that created this form of settlement. A city needs to be placed in its regional, national and trans-national context.

The experience of community development has so far been limited to rural areas. There is, however, a growin g realisation of the need for urban community development. The pattern and content of such programmes for urban areas have not yet been worked out although a beginning In this direction has been made, notably in Delhi, where the Municipal Corporation has set up a separate department of Urban Community Development wit h the assistance of the Ford Foundation.

Rural community development ideally encompasses the entire village community , even if in reality it results In greater benefits to the economically better off section of the population. It is an integrated programme of development covering all aspects of the farmers' life but mainly emphasizing the economic. The programme is implemented through stimulation of local effort and State assistance. It involves introduction of improved practices in the field of production which yield tangible economic gains to the individual peasant, stimulation of collective effort to meet both economic and non-economic needs of the whole community and educational programmes for social and cultural betterment. Successive reports of the Programme Evaluation Organization have shown that people have responded mainly to the economic aspects of the programme. Efforts to involve people in planning and execution of programmes for their o wn benefit have included strengthening of village panchayats by makin g them integral parts of the system of local self-government.

Urban Conditions

Thus in rural areas work has been with h entire village communities and the programmes have aimed to cover all aspects of village life. Villages moreover are characterized, relatively speaking, by homogeneity, both social and economic, and by common bonds and traditions, which have to some extent created in the people a sense of belonging and loyalty to the village. In spite of this the tas k of the rura l development worker has not been an easy one.

The situation in urban areas is substantially different. The city is not a community . It is characterized by heterogenous population, by competing groups, by wide disparities In income, by formal , impersonal relationships and by relatively high spatial and class mobility. When we thin k of urban communit y development we thin k of lower income groups, particularl y the residents of .slum areas who live in sub-human conditions. It is thought that the communit y development approach would be able to make an effective contribution to the improvement of the livin g conditions of these people. The lower income group, however, can be considered a communit y only in a Marxist sense It is true that people in slum areas may be clustered together, if not organized on the basis of religion or caste. Neither of these bonds,

however, are sufficient from the point of view of community development which is concerned mainly with neighborhood communities residing in the same locality and having, therefore, some common interests and concerns arising out of residence in the same area or neighborhood. Provision of Civic Amenities In urban community development, therefore. Community is an entity that we can take for granted much less than in rural areas. It has to be cultivated and nurtured. The urban community development worker may have to begin from the very beginning. He may have to draw boundaries and create a community. The content of the urban community development programme will also be different from rural community development programmes. Rural community development, as has been stated earlier, Includes programmes for economic betterment. Development of agriculture and rura l industries is an important aspect of community development. The diversity and nature of the urban community makes development programmes of economic welfare very difficult.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of Urban Community Development ?

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2. Elements of Community Development ?

The scope of urban community development is consequently very much restricted and it cannot possibly offer a total programme of development It concerns itself mainly with seeking community interest and cooperation in the provision of civic amenities and services and in enriching the social and cultural life of the community. Probably the only possibility of bringing economic benefit to the community is through the provision of part-time jobs that could be undertaken by women with little or no training in their spare time at home, and the organization of consumers' cooperatives. It is not easy to find suitable jobs that women can do at home. A consumers' cooperative if run properly may be of some benefit to the members in the long run.

6.7 LETS SUM UP

The relative neglect of the Indian city by historians in the past has been reversed by the outpouring of scholarly accounts over the last ten years. As you continue through the Units of this course, you will see the varied set of thematic concerns and conceptual approaches which make Indian urban history among the most vibrant fields of study today.

Urban history has learnt from a variety of disciplines. Beginning its career as a minor description of memoirs about cities, it turned into a major discipline that provided insights into major historical transformations. It draws upon

disciplines of geography, sociology, economics, history and literature. But as a discipline, its boundaries are blurred, with ongoing negotiations along its changing peripheries. What makes urban studies a challenging field is that it is not simply interdisciplinary but that its boundaries dissolve and joint efforts begin to look for new and unexpected answers. It remains committed to understanding the intersection of global and the local. Issues of environment and sustainability have become important in the current discussions on urbanism. The fact that urban studies relate to different streams of thought makes it a vibrant intellectual enterprise. Historians of urbanism continue to transcend boundaries created by disciplines. They continue to explore real and imagined spaces with their flow of people and invention of spaces. New York and Mohenjodaro might share very little in the experiential or imagined worlds, however, the patterns of control and the ability to invent new occupations make them cities.

6.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Urban Community Development?
2. Explain the elements of Community Development ?

6.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Urban community development aims to organize and stimulate community leadership to handle problems on a mutual aid and self help basis. Urban community development means the working together of two factors the collective initiative of families living in the same neighborhood and support of their effort through services rendered to them by a higher level of government. Urban community development means integrating the organized popular effort and governmental services for the improvement of conditions in the urban
2. **Elements of Community Development:** (1) Participation of the people

   (2) Local initiative ; (3) Technical & other support to reinforce initiative, self help and mutual help

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BLOCK III: APPROACHES, PRINCIPLES PROCESS AND METHODS OF URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

UNIT VII : APPROACHES, PRINCIPLES PROCESS AND METHODS OF URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT, WELFARE EXTENSION PROJECTS OF CENTRAL SOCIAL WELFARE BOARD, URBAN DEVELOPMENT PLANNING.

Structure

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Urban area is the most dynamic sector which requires the use of multidisciplinary approaches for their planning and management. The magnitude and dynamics of urban areas are major challenges for those responsible for their planning and management. Formulating and implementing effective planning and management approaches are a major challenge for both developed as well as developing countries. In this unit, you will be learning more about urban planning and planning processes.

After reading this unit you will be able to:

- Explain meaning, need and importance of urban planning
- Describe various types of planning required for urban development
- Narrate the thrust of urban planning in different five year plans in India.

7.2 APPROACHES

Due to the complex nature of the problem, there is need to approach it from several directions. First, we are concerned with the relationship between the city and civilization, with the fact that the modern literate man is integrally wound up with urbanism and all that it implies. The task here is twofold: (1) meaningfully to identify the city and (2) to trace the origins of modern city life back to their antecedents. Cities have been seen in the wider context of the history of civilization by many scholars such as G. Botero, A.F. Weber, Spengler, Toynbee, Geddes, Ghurye, Mumford and Wirth. While Botero and Weber sought more specific causes and conditions for the growth of cities in different civilizations, Spengler and Toynbee generally considered world history in terms of city history. Geddes viewed the city as a mirror of civilization. Mumford and Ghurye have elaborated this idea in different historical contexts. Wirth also maintained that the history of civilization should be written in terms of the history of cities and that the city was the symbol of civilization.

While these ideas remained general, more specific insights into urbanism and urbanisation in the context of civilization were provided by the set of - concepts worked out by Redfield and his colleagues. They developed a different perspective in the study of cities, by constructing a typology of city and working out its organisational and functional aspects. Distinguishing between orthogenetic and heterogenetic process, they argued that primary organisation consists in the transformation of the Little Tradition into the Great Tradition, and that secondary urbanisation introduced the elements of freedom from tradition.

Second, the physical mechanism as a preconditioning force requires deliberation. This is the ecology of urbanism, a concern with the city as a physical object composed of streets, buildings, facilities for communication and transportation, and a complex of technical devices through which an area is transformed into a human community. This ecological dimension, a necessary approach, embraces those physical, spatial, and material aspects of urban life distinguishable from will, consensus, and deliberate action of a social psychological nature. The key question here is: Why do certain 14 human types, groups, races, professions, and physical utilities tend to move to certain areas in the city, and how does the configuration of settlement enter into social life? In case of Indian cities, especially in old cities like Delhi, Agra and Amritsar. The inner parts of the cities can be divided into Mohallas or traditional neighbourhoods which are exclkt5ively inhabited by a particular occupational or caste qroup. All Indian cities have this pattern. The new or more recent parts of cities may be called as colonial and post colonial parts of the city. Usually these parts of the city are on the other side of the railway line, these are entirely different from old ones, here, people are grouped on the basis of income rather than caste or occupation. They are grouped on the basis of plot size also. The socio-economic status of an area can be determined on the basis of more . number of bigger plots in that area and wider roads and available infrastructure. A poor residential area can be easily distinguished

from such richlposh residential areas due to its appearance and available ' infrastructure.

Third is the form of social organisation. This perspective deals with the basic forms of urban life that have evolved as a direct result of urbanisation. Sociology as a discipline has probably made its largest contribution to this dimension of the urbanisation process. The social organisation of the modern urban community can be said to include a huge and complex network of individuals, groups, bureaucratic structures, and social institutions, which is further differentiated into a complex division of labour. The unit of analysis can be ranked from the smallest and most simple to the largest and most elaborate, as follows: The Individuals: The urban individuals can best be described in terms of patterns of personality organisation and individual life styles that are believed to have evolved in response to the conditions of urban life. Much of the early writings on the urban individual was based on the idea that the city produces distinct personality and behavioural characteristics that set urbanites apart from their rural counterparts. But recent writing on urban personality and life style has been more dynamic and has described mechanism for coping with or adjusting to the urban complex, or the techniques of urban survival (Lofland, 1973). The concern with the individual also brings into focus many socio-cultural dimensions, such as the positive or negative attitudes, values, beliefs, perceptions and symbolic attachments that have come to be associated with urban life.

7.3 PRINCIPLES

We value innovation and entrepreneurship in seeking new ways to respond to the challenges of distressed communities. We are dedicated to a set of principles that:

1. Promote active and representative citizen participation so that community members can meaningfully influence decisions that affect their situation.
2. Engage community members in problem diagnosis so that those affected may adequately understand the causes of their situation.
3. Help community members understand the economic, social, political, environmental, and psychological impact associated with alternative solutions to the problem.
4. Assist community members in designing and implementing a plan to solve agreed upon problems by emphasizing shared leadership and active citizen participation.
5. Seek alternatives to any effort that is likely to adversely affect the disadvantaged segments of a community.
6. Actively work to increase leadership capacity, skills, confidence, and aspirations in the community development process.

7.4 PROCESS

The basis for integrating energy aspects in planning processes is a thorough understanding of the existing urban planning process in a given city. Such a

process should include all phases (see graphic below), steps, stakeholders and their related activities/responsibilities as well as instruments and tools used in planning urban development projects.

In most cases the main planning instrument of a city such as the zoning plan or land use plan needs to be adapted when new projects are being developed. However, it is important to not only show the final, official steps when adapting the zoning plan. The process map should depict all phases including the early planning steps, feasibility and master plans, the permitting process and final implementation. It should also show some decision points or paths during this process for instance criteria for special procedural steps or competitions. It might also be helpful to develop two process maps: one for the procedure of new development areas and one for transformation areas.

The principal phases of an urban planning process are:

1. Preparatory / exploration phase
2. Feasibility / planning phase
3. Formal planning / zoning phase
4. Design and implementation phase
5. Operational phase

The following figure shows an example of a "typical" simplified urban planning process for a new development area.

How to create a planning process scheme

Overview of recommended steps to create a planning process scheme:

Step 1: Form a working group with departments involved in the planning process

Step 2: Develop and draft the different steps of the planning process via workshop and interviews

Step 3: Provide a first scheme of this process and discuss it in the working group

Step 4: Analyse how energy is already integrated in the existing process

Step 5: Finalise the scheme and use it in discussions with politicians (and external stakeholders) as well as at the strategic level. Integrate feedback

Step 6: Analyse how energy should be integrated in the process

Step 7: Use and discuss the upgraded scheme (also find a common understanding with utilities and grid operators)

Step 8: Link this scheme to decision trees for the energy supply solutions for an area

7.5 METHODS OF URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Urban and regional development can be broadly divided into "Urban Development" and "Regional Development." The areas covered by and the issues inherent in each differ, and therefore the approaches to development also naturally differ. Because "regional development" covers wide areas where several cities and rural areas have organically combined, it needs to tackle integrated problems such as regional disparities, depopulation problems, and regional economic stagnation. Therefore, the various structures within the region (the structure of spaces, industry structure, social structure, etc.) must be properly understood, and the resolution of development issues must be addressed from a more macro perspective.

On the other hand, although various issues are also involved in "urban development," compared to "regional development," it covers relatively limited areas, namely cities, and a more concrete set of problems such as infrastructure improvements and the upgrading of residential environments. The approach required here is one that utilizes the know-how of each individual sector.Given the basic realization as discussed above that different approaches have been taken for the "urban development" and "regional development," this report will take these two issues as respective development objectives. With consideration given to the size of the range covered by each of these development categories, we first deal with "regional development," and then follow with a discussion of "urban development."

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the Principles of Principles of Planning Process ?

2.Central Social Welfare Board ?

7.6 WELFARE EXTENSION PROJECTS OF CENTRAL SOCIAL WELFARE BOARD

Central Social Welfare Board

The Central Social Welfare Board was established in 1953 by a Resolution of Govt. of India to carry out welfare activities for promoting voluntarism, providing technical and financial assistance to the voluntary organisations for the general welfare of family, women and children. This was the first effort

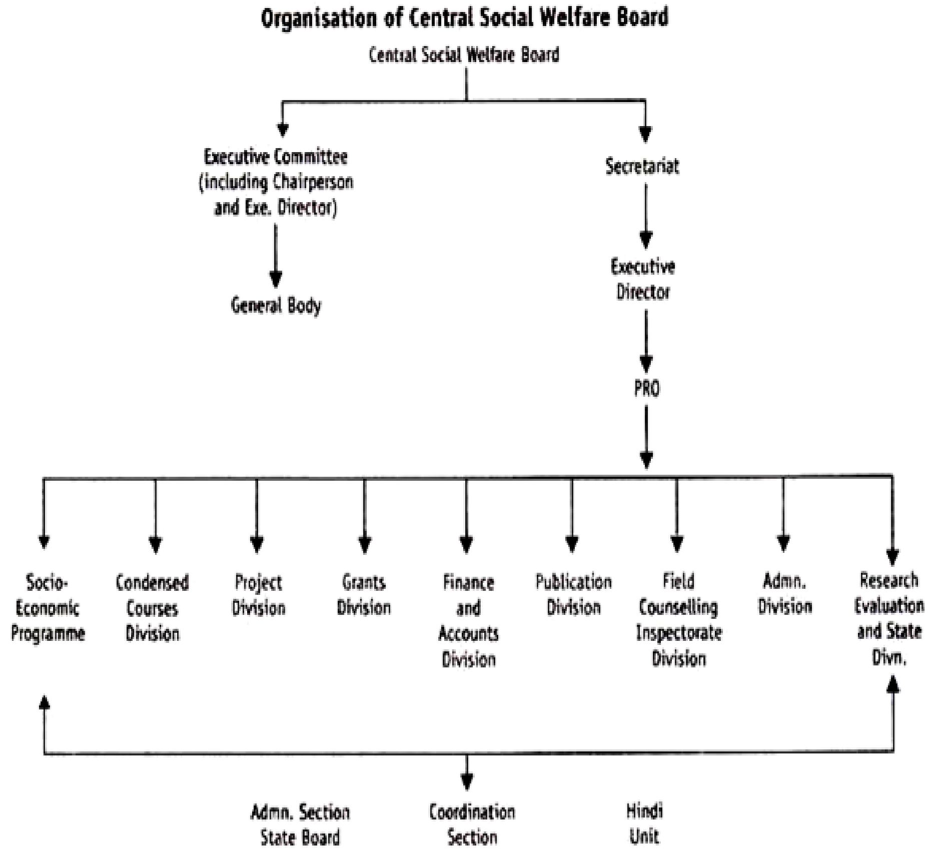
on the part of the Govt. of India to set up an organization, which would work on the principle of voluntarism as a non-governmental organization. The objective of setting up Central Social Welfare Board was to work as a link between the government and the people.

Dr.Durgabai Deshmukh was the founder Chairperson of the Central Social Welfare Board. Earlier she was in charge of "Social Services" in the Planning Commission and she was instrumental in planning the welfare programmes for the First Five Year Plan. Under the guidance of Dr. Durgabai Deshmukh, various welfare schemes were introduced by the Central Social Welfare Board.

The Central Social Welfare Board obtained its legal status in 1969. It was registered nder section 25 of the Indian Companies Act, 1956

The State Social Welfare Boards were set up in 1954 in all States and Union Territories. The objective for setting up of the State Social Welfare Boards was to coordinate welfare and developmental activities undertaken by the various Departments of the State Govts. to promote voluntary social welfare agencies for the extension of welfare services across the country, specifically in uncovered areas. The major schemes being implemented by the Central Social Welfare Board were providing comprehensive services in an integrated manner to the community.

Many projects and schemes have been implemented by the Central Social Welfare Board like Grant in Aid, Welfare Extension Projects, Mahila Mandals , Socio Economic Programme, Dairy Scheme, Condensed Course of Education Programme for adolescent girls and women, Vocational Training Programme, Awareness Generation Programme, National Creche Scheme, Short Stay Home Programme, Integrated Scheme for Women's Empowerment for North Eastern States, Innovative Projects and Family Counselling Centre Programme.



The scheme of Family Counselling Centre was introduced by the CSWB in 1983. The scheme provides counselling, referral and rehabilitative services to women and children who are the victims of atrocities, family maladjustments and social ostracism and crisis intervention and trauma counselling in case of natural/ manmade disasters. Working on the concept of people's participation, FCCs work in close collaboration with the Local Administration, Police, Courts, Free Legal Aid Cells, Medical and Psychiatric Institutions, Vocational Training Centres and Short Stay Homes.

Over six decades of its incredible journey in the field of welfare, development and empowerment of women and children, CSWB has made remarkable contribution for the weaker and marginalized sections of the society. To meet the changing social pattern, CSWB is introspecting itself and exploring new possibilities so that appropriate plan of action can be formulated. Optimal utilisation of ICT facilities will be taken so that effective and transparent services are made available to the stakeholders.

State Social Welfare Board

The Central Social Welfare Board was established in 1953 by a Resolution of Govt. of India to carry out welfare activities for promoting voluntarism, providing technical and financial assistance to the voluntary organisations for

the general welfare of family, women and children. This was the first effort on the part of the Govt. of India to set up an organization, which would work on the principle of voluntarism as a non-governmental organization. The objective of setting up Central Social Welfare Board was to work as a link between the government and the people.

Dr.Durgabai Deshmukh was the founder Chairperson of the Central Social Welfare Board. Earlier she was in charge of "Social Services" in the Planning Commission and she was instrumental in planning the welfare programmes for the First Five Year Plan. Under the guidance of Dr. Durgabai Deshmukh, various welfare schemes were introduced by the Central Social Welfare Board. The Central Social Welfare Board obtained its legal status in 1969. It was registered under section 25 of the Indian Companies Act, 1956

STATE SOCIAL WELFARE BOARD

the state social welfare boards were set up in 1954 in all states and union territories. the objective for setting up of the state social welfare boards was to coordinate welfare and developmental activities undertaken by the various departments of the state govts. to promote voluntary social welfare agencies for the extension of welfare services across the country, specifically in uncovered areas. the major schemes being implemented by the central social welfare board were providing comprehensive services in an integrated manner to the community.

many projects and schemes have been implemented by the central social welfare board like grant in aid, welfare extension projects, mahila mandals , socio economic programme, dairy scheme, condensed course of education programme for adolescent girls and women, vocational training programme, awareness generation programme, national creche scheme, short stay home programme, integrated scheme for women's empowerment for north eastern states, innovative projects and family counselling centre programme.

The scheme of family counselling centre was introduced by the cswb in 1983. the scheme provides counselling, referral and rehabilitative services to women and children who are the victims of atrocities, family maladjustments and social ostracism and crisis intervention and trauma counselling in case of natural/ manmade disasters. working on the concept of people’s participation, fccs work in close collaboration with the local administration, police, courts, free legal aid cells, medical and psychiatric institutions, vocational training centres and short stay homes. over six decades of its incredible journey in the field of welfare, development and empowerment of women and children, cswb has made remarkable contribution for the weaker and marginalized sections of the society. to meet the changing social pattern, cswb is introspecting itself and exploring new possibilities so that appropriate plan of action can be formulated. optimal utilisation of ict facilities will be taken so that effective and transparent services are made available to the stakeholders.

7.7 URBAN DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Urban Planning is a large-scale concept concerned with planning and development at all levels (architectural, infrastructural, ecological, economic, and even political).

During this process many problems & obstacles come up but luckily the same as ny other kind of problems, there are solutions and precautions which we will discuss in detail.

Urban Planning Definition

According to Wikipedia, Urban Planning is a technical and political process concerned with the development and use of land, protection and use of the environment, public welfare, and the design of the urban environment, including air, water, and the infrastructure passing into and out of urban areas, such as transportation, communications, and distribution networks.

On the other hand, English Lexicon describes Urban Planning as a branch of architecture dealing with the design and organization of urban space and activities besides determining and drawing up plans for the future physical arrangement.

Here in IEREK, we believe that Urban Planning must be accompanied by sustainability concept which enables us to carry out the urban development process in the right way to keep up the sustainable environment for future generations.

Urban Planning Problems

The basic concern of city-town planning is the internal form, structure, function, and appearance of urban areas.

Physical aspects such as buildings, roads, land use, etc., play an important role in urban planning, at the same time social, economic and technological forces should also be considered while planning so that a healthy environment is created in the city/town.Apart from this problem, some factors also complicate the task of planning as follows:

a) Urban Sprawl

Urban Sprawl refers to the migration of a population from populated towns and cities to low-density residential development over more and more rural land which results in:

Increase in Public Expenditure: They can actually play a part in the increases of public costs because these changes in infrastructures and building must actually be paid for by someone- and it is usually the taxpayers.

Increased Traffic: Populations will begin to use their cars more often, which means that there is more traffic on the roads.

Environmental Issues: When you think about going out to develop these lands you will have to worry about the wildlife that lives in these lands. You will be displacing them, and it can really cause a ripple in the environment.

b) Individual Control or Small Parcels of Land

Private ownership of small parcels of urban land sometimes interferes with the effective control of the space pattern of the city like the following:

If a private owner enjoys unrestricted right to use his/her land as he wishes, he may build a shop or a factory in the residential area, thus decreasing the value of the nearby residences.

If in a continuous residential area where two houses walls are shared, the problem arises in such areas when one house owner is willing to renovate the house and another is not in case of deterioration. They may develop conflict, which may turn out to be a problem in the future.

If a private builder wants to undertake a project developing or reconstructing the building on the same land, he/she may face two problems, one is he/she may have to pay more money to the existing house owner and the second is he/she has to face the problems created by a neighbor. Both such events are detrimental for the urban development.

c) Unique Environmental Site

Every city/town occupies a unique environmental site, hills, valleys, rivers, waterfronts, or any other physical features make one city/town look different from another as following:

Different sections of the city have unequal value as building sites as the underlying soil and rock formations affect the soundness of the foundations, characteristics of subsoil drainage, etc. All these make differences in the cost of underground construction. At the same time, the rough terrain has different advantages and disadvantages for different kinds of buildings.

Topography affects the routes of transportation. If a heavy rail line has to be constructed, it needs a level route, but if the city/town does not possess this feature, then transportation is affected.

Breaks in transportation like from waterway to land-way or from the roadway to railway prove advantageous for certain manufacturing and commercial activities.

Some parts of the city provide better amenities than others. The amenities can be in the form of a better view and access to the market.

d) Housing Affordability

Affordable housing is housing deemed affordable to those with a median

household income. Housing choice is a response to an extremely complex set of economic, social, and psychological impulses as follows:

Housing expenditures: Housing affordability can be measured by the changing relationships between house prices and rents and between house prices and incomes. There has been an increase among policymakers in affordable housing as the price of housing has increased dramatically creating a crisis in affordable housing.

Economy: Lack of affordable housing places a particular burden on local economies. As well, individual consumers are faced with mortgage arrears and excessive debt and therefore cut back on consumption. A combination of high housing costs and high debt levels contributes to a reduction in savings.

Transportation: Lack of affordable housing can make low-cost labor more scarce, and increase demands on transportation systems (as workers travel longer distances between jobs and affordable housing).

Urban Planning Solutions

As we mentioned before Urban Planning must be accompanied by the sustainability concept. Here where we should stand and understand that the city is more than the sum of its parts. It is a whole living thing that is constantly changing, evolving and morphing into an ever more ECO-Friendly and welcoming entity which can be achieved through innovative sustainable solutions such as following:

Sustainable and Affordable Housing

Census population doubles which require more housing spaces, yet our goal to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

Sustainable Housing means “housing which contributes to community building, to social justice, and to economic viability at a local level” (Morgan and Talbot, 2001, p. 321).

Morgan and Talbot argue that sustainability should be the main principle to design housing and one of the important dimensions of the housing quality.

Also, Development of Sustainable Housing refers to not only the development of building but also the layout of the housing areas since Quality of Dwelling life is not just simply concerned with having a roof over one’s head and a sufficient amount of living space, but also with social and psychological satisfaction.

Affordable Housing has become a commonly used term for summarizing the nature of the housing difficulty in many nations. He identifies six elements of measuring housing expenditure to an income ratio to measure housing

affordability.

Here is "Alejandro Aravena" comes with an innovative solution for Housing Affordability through his architectural philosophy.

b) Zero-Carbon Cities

Components of Zero Carbon Building

Info-graphic shows Components of Zero Carbon Building

There is a need for Zero-Carbon Cities which are urban areas powered by renewable \energy techniques and technologies. A zero-carbon city runs entirely on renewable energy; it has no carbon footprint and will in this respect not cause harm to the planet. Most cities throughout the world produce energy by burning coal, oil, and gas, unintentionally emitting carbon. Almost every activity human does involve burning one of these fossil fuels. To become a zero carbon city, an established modern city must collectively reduce emissions of greenhouse gases to zero and all practices that emit greenhouse gases must cease. The aim of a zero-carbon city is reducing carbon emissions from buildings, reducing waste, transport, materials and food emissions by 50% globally. It can be achieved by the following steps:

Reducing energy-use wherever possible in the buildings and transportation sector.

Increase Renewable Energy Resources by Adding as much renewable energy as possible.

Offsetting any CO2 emitted through purchasing carbon credits. Developing distributed power and water systems. Increasing photosynthetic spaces as a part of the green infrastructure. Improving Eco-Efficiency. Developing cities without slums.

c) Green Roofs

Green Roofs (roofs with a vegetated surface and substrate) provide ecosystem services in urban areas, including improved storm-water management, better regulation of building temperatures, reduced urban heat-island effects, and increased urban wildlife habitat.

Just imagine if this technology was applied to every building within your city, it comes with unlimited benefits as following:

Storm Water Management and Water Retention since Green roofs can help with controlling the stormwater runoff which is a major problem in many cities. They have the ability to retain water at a rate of 50-90% depending on the design of the roofs.

Improvement of Micro-climate as rainwater evaporates, it humidifies the air above it, making the air cooler. This reduces the ambient temperature of the air above rooftops, improving the micro-climate. Since the rooftop becomes cooler, the efficiency of the building's AC units is improved.

Dust and Toxic Particles Binder where air pollution is a common phenomenon in all major cities. Green roofs can play a vital role in filtering the air pollutants, improving the quality of air. When the air flows, the foliar surface of green roof reduces the speed of air flowing above it. This filters 10-20% of dust particles from the air, thus, helping to purify the air.

Protection from Noise Pollution as green roofs can be of great advantage when it comes to noise pollution. Urban areas are mostly subjected to sources of loud sounds and noises particularly because of buildings being located under flight paths, adjacent to nightclubs, markets, malls, and fairs and so on.

d) Sustainable Transportation

Transport has a major impact on the spatial and economic development of cities and regions. The attractiveness of particular locations depends in part on the relative accessibility, and this in turn depends on the quality and quantity of the transport infrastructure.

The concept of sustainable transportation promotes a balance between transportation's economic and social benefits and the need to protect the environment.

In further articulating this idea, the Center for Sustainable Transportation has defined a sustainable transportation system as one that:

Allows individuals and societies to meet their access needs safely and in a manner consistent with human and ecosystem health, and with equity within and between generations.

Is affordable operates efficiently, offers a choice of transport mode, and supports a vibrant economy.

Limits emissions and waste within the planet's ability to absorb them minimizes consumption of non-renewable resources, limits consumption of renewable resources to the sustainable yield level reuses and recycles its components, and minimizes the use of land and the production of noise.

Depending on modern-technology we can convert current polluting transportation into an environmentally friendly one.

7.8 LETS SUM UP

India is urbanising. This transition, which will see India's urban population reach

a figure close to 600 million by 2031, is not simply a shift of demographics. It places cities and towns at the centre of India's development trajectory. In the coming decades, the urban sector will play a critical role in the structural transformation of the Indian economy and in sustaining the high rates of economic growth. Ensuring high quality public services for all in the cities and towns of India is an end in itself, but it will also facilitate the full realisation

of India's economic potential. India's economic growth momentum cannot be sustained if urbanisation is not actively facilitated. Nor can poverty be addressed if the needs of the urban poor are isolated from the broader challenges of managing urbanisation. Cities will have to become the engines of national development. India cannot afford to get its urban strategy wrong, but it cannot get it right without bringing about a fundamental shift in the mindset which separates rural from the urban.

7.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the principles of Urban Planning Process ?
2. Central Social Welfare Board – Explain ?

7.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The principal phases of an urban planning process are:
    - Preparatory / exploration phase
    - Feasibility / planning phase
    - Formal planning / zoning phase
    - Design and implementation phase
    - Operational phase
2. The Central Social Welfare Board was established in 1953 by a Resolution of Govt. of India to carry out welfare activities for promoting voluntarism, providing technical and financial assistance to the voluntary organisations for the general welfare of family, women and children. This was the first effort on the part of the Govt. of India to set up an organization, which would work on the principle of voluntarism as a non-governmental organization. The objective of setting up Central Social Welfare Board was to work as a link between the government and the people.

   Dr.Durgabai Deshmukh was the founder Chairperson of the Central Social Welfare Board. Earlier she was in charge of "Social Services" in the Planning Commission and she was instrumental in planning the welfare programmes for the First Five Year Plan. Under the guidance of Dr. Durgabai Deshmukh, various welfare schemes were introduced by the Central Social Welfare Board.

7.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT VIII LEGISLATION RELATED TO URBAN DEVELOPMENT: URBAN LAND CEILING ACT, TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING ACT, NAGARPALIKA ACT AND TAMIL NADU SLUM CLEARANCE AND IMPROVEMENT ACT) COMMUNITY PLANNING, AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Structure

8.0 INTRODUCTION

The World is urbanizing very fast and more than 45 per cent of the World's population today are residing in urban areas. According to UN estimation, the Wold population is expected to increase by 72 percent by 2050, from 3.6 billion in 2011 to 6.3 billion in 2050.Customarily urbanization means increasing population living in cities and suburbs cities of a country. In 19th and 20th century, majority of the cities in the world are undergoing growth of urban population. In India also urban population which was 0.37 percent in 1951 has risen to 27.81 percent in 2001 and 31.16 percent in 2011 and is increasing day by day. According to Asian Development Bank, the national increase and net migration are the major contributory factors to urban growth. The share of world's population living in urban areas has increased from 39 percent in 1980 to 48 percent in 2000. However, urbanization without proper planning has given rise to several problems such as housing, sanitation, education, provision of safe drinking water, unemployment, etc. particularly in underdeveloped countries. This unit on "Urban Development: An Overview" will provide you information and knowledge regarding urbanization, its trends, impact and idea about sustainable urban development. After reading this unit, you will be able

to:

- Explain meaning and trend of urbanization
- Narrate various causes of urbanization
- Discuss urbanization and urban problems
- Describe about sustainable urban development

8.1 LEGISLATION RELATED TO URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Urban development policies and programmes have been vogue in independent in India as can be seen through the Five Year Plans. In this section we will discuss these policies and programmes in holistic manner and, thus, attempt to present you an overview of the same. Since the First Five Year Plan the Government of India has been laying focus, among other things, on the issues of urban development including poverty alleviation. The first three five-year plans focused on housing up-gradation and slum clearance programmes. During fourth to seventh Five Year Plans the focus was on urban community development and environmental improvement of slums. From eighth plan onwords urban poverty began to get attention and a series of programmes relating to basic services and livelihoods and employment-generation were launched (http://urbanindia.nic.inlmoud.htm). A three pronged strategy of 'inclusive growth7 is being followed at present to address the various problems of urban poverty and slums. It includes provision of housing and
services through Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM),
institutional reforms as given in 74th Constitutional Amendment Act and through
programmes like National Urban Sanitation Policy, National Urban Transport Policy, Policy for Urban Street Vendors and Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UDSSMT) and Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP), among others. The important policies and programmes of urban development implemented in India include the following.

- Urban Community Development Programme, 1958.
- Constitution (Seventy-Fourth) Amendment Act, 1992.
- Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), 1997.
- National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, 2004.
- Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), 2005.
- Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT), 2005. ,
- Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP), 2005.
- National Urban Transport Policy, 2006.
- Capacity-Building for Urban Development Project for India, 2006.

- National Urban Sanitation Policy, 2008.

These policies and programmes are discussed, in brief, below.

8.2 URBAN LAND CEILING ACT

The Urban Land (Ceiling and Regulation) Act was enacted in India in 1976 with a view to curbing land price increases and promoting low-income housing through socialisation of urban land. This paper critically examines the stated objectives of the Act and the major achievements after its implementation, and finds that the Act has so far not lived up to its expectations. The paper begins with an introductory background for the evolution of the Act and highlights its major provisions. A careful examination of the limitations in the implementation of this Act and its major implications as per experience is then presented. The paper concludes with the necessity for a thorough reappraisal of major policy instruments, search for alternative strategies and consideration of the realities of the existing situation in the country for possible improvement.

The Urban Land (Ceiling And Regulation) Act, 1976

1. Short title, application and commencement.—

(1) This Act may be called the Urban Land (Ceiling and Regulation) Act, 1976.

(2) It applies in the first instance to the whole of the States of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal and to all the Union territories and it shall also -apply to such other State which adopts this Act by resolution passed in that behalf under clause (1) of article 252 of the Constitution.

(3) It shall come into force in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal and in the Union territories at once and in any other State which adopts this Act under clause (1) of article 252 of the Constitution, on the date of such adoption; and, save as otherwise provided in this, Act, any reference in this Act to the commencement of this Act shall, in relation to any State or Union territory, mean the date on which this Act comes into force in such State or Union territory.

8.3 TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING ACT

Town and Country Planning Act, 1047, has been called a skeleton Act; but it is a singularly robust-looking skeleton. Its 120 ample sections and eleven formidable schedules dwarf the more modest New Towns Act, its companion in the new planning code. Nevertheless, so extensive are the powers of delegated legislation conferred by the Act that it may be some years before its full implications become clear.

Before the war only a small proportion of local authorities had planning schemes in actual operation. Whilst this was due partly to the phenomenal prolixity of the procedure necessary for putting any local scheme into operation under the 1982 Act, there were also more serious obstacles. The bogey of compensation frightened many authorities into adopting a timid

approach towards planning. They also tended to think in parochial terms; in the words of the Explanatory Memorandum to the 1047 Bill, ' the tendency was for each authority to plan thcir arca in isolation from their neighbours '. Nor were they obliged to prepare any scheme whatever ; and if they did take positive action,. their powers were insufficient to ensure satisfactory development, as distinct from preventing bad development. Further, the system was fundamentally rigid; once a planning scheme obtained the force of law, the rocedure for amendment was too complicated. In recent years the idea .that physical planning should be conceived as a national, rather than a local, responsibility, has gained ground. The establishment of a Ministry of Town and Country Planning in 1043 was followed in the same year and in 1944 by statutes which brought this goal nearer to fulfilment. But the main weaknesses persisted. The 1947 Act seeks to cure them by

solving the financial problems of local authorities and ht the same time erecting a new structure of planning machinery to ensure that planning will be centrally co-ordinated and also effectively executed.

8.4 NAGARPALIKA ACT

Constitution (Seventy Forth Amendment) Act, 1992 has introduced a new Part IXA in the Constitution, which deals with Municipalities in an article 243 P to 243 ZG. This amendment, also known as Nagarpalika Act, came into force on 1st June 1993. It has given constitutional status to the municipalities and brought them under the justifiable part of the constitution. States were put under constitutional obligation to adopt municipalities as per system enshrined in the constitution.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of land ceiling Act ?

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2. Definition of Slum

____

Definition of Metropolitan area

Metropolitan area in the country is an area where population is above 10 Lakh. (Article 243P)

Three Kinds of Municipalities

Article 243Q provides for establishment of 3 kinds of Municipalities of every state.

Nagar Panchayat: A Nagar Panchayat is for those areas which are transitional areas i.e. transiting from Rural Area to Urban areas. “Governor” will by public notice, will define these three areas based upon the population,

density of population, revenue generated for local administration, % of employment in Non-agricultural activities and other factors. Further, a Governor may also if, he fits it necessary, based upon the industrial establishments, can specify the Industrial **Townships by public notice.**

Municipal Council: A Municipal council is for smaller urban area

Municipal Corporation: A municipal Corporation for Larger urban Areas

Composition of Municipalities

All the members of a Municipality are to be directly elected by the people of the Municipal area and for the purpose of making the electorate; the municipal area will be divided into territorial constituencies known as Wards.

Besides the seats filled by direct elections, some seats may be filled by nomination of persons having special knowledge and experience in municipal administration.

Persons so nominated shall not have the right to vote in the meetings of the municipality.

The Legislature of a State may, by law, also provide for the representation in a municipality of members of the House of the People and the members of the Legislative Assembly of the State representing constituencies which comprise wholly or partly the Municipal area and also the Members of the Council of States and the members of the Legislative Council of the State registered as electors within the municipal area.

The manner of election of Chairpersons of municipalities has been left to be specified by the State Legislature. {Article 243R}

Ward Committees

There shall be constituted the ward committees consisting of one or more wards within the territorial area of all the municipalities with a population of 3 Lakhs or more. { Article 243S}

Reservation of Seats:

Rreservation of the seats for the Scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in every municipality corporation has to be provided in proportion to their population to the total population in the municipal area.

The proportion of seats to be reserved for SC/ST to the total number of seats has to be same as the proportion of the population of SC/ST in the municipal area.

The reservation has to be made for only those seats that are to be filled by the direct elections. (This means no reservation for nominated seats)

This article also provides that not less than one-third of the total number of seats reserved for SC/ST shall be reserved for women belonging to SC/ST. (Mandatory provision)

In respect of women, the seats shall be reserved to the extent of not less than one-third of the total number of seats. This includes seats reserved for women belonging to SC/ST. These reservations will apply for direct elections only. (Mandatory provision)

There are no bar on State Legislatures from making provisions for reservation of seats in any municipality or office of Chairperson in the municipalities in favor of backward class of citizens. (Optional Provision). {Article 243S}

Duration of Municipalities

Duration of the municipality has been fixed at 5 years from the date appointed for its first meeting. Elections to constitute a municipality are required to be completed before the expiration of the duration of the municipality. If the municipality is dissolved before the expiry of 5 years, the elections for constituting a new municipality are required to be completed within a period of 6 months from the date of its dissolution. {Article 243U}

Disqualifications of the members

A member is disqualified to be chosen as a member of municipality if he / she is disqualified under any law to be elected as MLA. The minimum age to be qualified as a member is 21 years.

Powers, authorities and responsibilities

As per Article 243 W, all municipalities would be empowered with such powers and responsibilities as may be necessary to enable them to function as effective institutions of self-government.

The State Legislature may, by law, specify what powers and responsibilities would be given to the municipalities in respect of preparation of plans for economic development and social justice and for implementation of schemes as may be entrusted to them.

8.5 TAMIL NADU SLUM CLEARANCE AND IMPROVEMENT ACT

An Act to provide for the improvement and clearance of slums in the State of Tamil Nadu.

Whereas the number of slums in certain areas in the State of Tamil Nadu is on the increase and the slums are likely to become a source of danger to public health and sanitation of the said area.

And Whereas under the existing law, it has not been possible effectively to arrest the growth of slums, to eliminate congestion and to provide for certain basic needs such as streets, water -supply and drainage in slums and to clear slums which are unfit for human habitation.

And Whereas to obviate this difficulty, it is expedient to provide for the removal of unhygenic and insanitary conditions prevailing in slums, for better accommodation and improved living conditions for slum dwellers, for the promotion of public health generally and for the acquisition of land for the purpose of improving or developing slum areas, re - developing slum clearance areas and rehabilitating slum dwellers:

And Whereas it is Directive principle of State Policy embodied in the constitution that the State should regard the improvement of public health as among its primary duties. Be it enacted by the legislature of the State of Tamil Nadu in the Twenty -second year of the Republic of India as follows:

Preliminary

1. Short title, extent and commencement. - This Act may be called Tamil Nadu Slum Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1971.
2. It extends to the whole of Tamil Nadu.

3. It should come into force on such date as the Government may, by notification, appoint and different dates may be appointed for different areas and for different provisions of this Act:

Provided that any reference in any such provision to the commencement of this Act shall be construed as a reference to the coming into force of that provision.

8.6 COMMUNITY PLANNING, COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Participatory planning is an urban or rural planning paradigm that emphasizes involving the entire community in the strategic and management processes of urban planning or, community-level planning processes, urban or rural. It is often considered as part of community development. A participatory approach is needed in gender planning which leads to the development of the whole nation. Gender planning prioritizes the needs and conditions in which women live and work as a site for change. It involves a critical analysis of the gaps between women's and men's access to economic, social, political and cultural resources. This analysis enables the development of policy initiatives to correct the imbalances – including cases where men are not benefiting equally from the development planning approaches currently in use. Gender planning should not be seen as a separate, parallel process to mainstream development planning but should transform mainstream planning to address the needs of women and poor people generally through an economically, socially and environmentally sustainable process.

Community planning

Community planning is a practice that is engaged in by numerous disciplines: community work, urban planning, macro social work, architecture, urban geography, community psychology, environmental psychology, community psychiatry.

A study of the practice of community planning in the various disciplines leads to the conclusion that despite their similar means, and the fact that they are influenced by the same social processes, almost no dialogue exists among the various professions engaged in community planning. The diversified activity, rather than contributing to an enrichment of this occupation, has led to a dispersal of the knowledge, has made

it difficult to create a significant mass, and has interfered with efficient learning of lessons from experience.

In the domain of urban planning, since the early eighties it has been rare to find explicit reference to community planning, except where the issue is to shake free of it (Hague, 1982). In the United States in the sixties, community planning represented a reform in planning methods, but the political and professional expectations this aroused were frustrated. The planning was supposed to consider local needs and to involve the public, but large projects of urban renewal and war against poverty, which used community planning

methods, failed. Furthermore, politicians did not achieve social quiet and a

more efficient problem solving process by means of community planning (Needleman & Needleman, 1974). The Republican administration, from the time of Reagan on, curtailed public resources and dealt a fatal blow to the social legitimation of investing in the weak (Boyte et al., 1986, Phillips, 1990). However, despite the absence of community planning from the mainstream of planning in the United States in recent years, the documentation of the practice of planning indicates that during all these years there has been significant – if also modest in resources and extent – community planning activity (Rubin & Rubin, 1992; Feldman & Stall, 1994). In Israel the situation is different, mainly because the largest community planning project ever conducted – the Urban Renewal Project for the rehabilitation of poor neighborhoods – has had much more impressive results than in the United

States. In Israel, however, community planning is almost never related to as a defined field of practice, and was never thought of this way in the past either. Traditionally, community workers and city planners who have participated together in this project define themselves as being engaged in community planning.

Community Participation

it is envisaged that without community participation, it is next to impossible to achieve these goals. The most valuable resource for health and development of people is the "People themselves". In the context, it becomes all the more important because we have the second largest human potential resource in the world. Harnessing this enormous resource of manpower for health and development is the biggest challenge indeed.

The purpose of all development activities is to increase the capacity of people to solve their own problems, the objectives of RCH or MCH services also are to involve individuals, families and community in understanding of their health problems and strive themselves to solve these problems. As a matter of fact, the present approach is that goals of "Health for All" in the revised National Health Policy and that of the National Population Policy can only be reached through a fully democratic process; it must be a programme of "Health by the People, of the People and for the People". The change or shift on policy as enunciated in RCH rogrammes is decentralization of planning, implementation and delivery of health services for mother and children. The Target Free Approach (TFA) (as of now named as Community Needs Assessment Approach) lays down emphasis on CNAA wherein the people identify their own needs, work out resources, determine priorities, plan agenda & programme of services, implement and monitor and finally, evaluate their own efforts / success. The subcentre action plan, PHC plans and CHC action plan under RCH programme envisages community participation and client satisfaction.

The community is at the centre-stage of the show and it is the "Heart" of the health system. Understanding of community and preparing them to face responsibility for their own health and development is the cornerstone of all programmes. Take a good look at your community; respect your peoples' traditions, ideas and culture. Help them build on the knowledge and skills they already have.

- Go to people
- Love them
- Learn from them.
- Serve them.
- Begin with what they know.
- Build on what they have.

The first requirement is to understand the community you serve. Our concern should be for all the people. Go to your people, visit their homes, fields, gathering places, schools, market place. Learn how have they organized themselves, what are their attitudes, beliefs and practices and what resources they have to meet their felt needs.

8.7 LETS SUM UP

In this unit, you have learnt the concept and definition of community and community participation. The pattern of community participation in health, nutrition and development programme in general and more specifically in RCH/MCH programme have been discussed in detail with view to learn the extent to which the community could take up the responsibilities in these areas under the Target Free Approach, now named as Community Needs Assessment Approach (CNAA). We have tried to delineate the policy issues and operational aspects where the community can take direct responsibility by organizing self help groups for RCH services to realize the goal of NPP, 2000; how the process of community consultation has been built up in the preparation of the subcentre action plan and implementation thereof. Examples of successfull programmes where community participation was forthcoming have been enlisted and the various reasons of success

stories have been delineated for better understanding. Factors which promote/retard the community participation have also been discussed. Probable resources which community can marshal have been identified. The list is not exhaustive and one can add more to this list. Efforts of various available groups which can contribute in community organization and community actions have been enunciated. Learners have been provided a chance to check their progress and further readings have been suggested.

8.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Urban Land ceiling Act ?
2. Explain the Community Planning ?

8.9ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1.The Urban Land (Ceiling and Regulation) Act was enacted in India in 1976 with a view to curbing land price increases and promoting low-income housing through socialisation of urban land. This paper critically examines the stated objectives of the Act and the major achievements after its implementation, and finds that the Act has so far not lived up to its expectations. The paper begins with an introductory background for the evolution of the Act and highlights its major provisions. A careful examination of the limitations in the implementation of this Act and its major implications as per experience is then presented. The paper concludes with the necessity for a thorough reappraisal of major policy instruments, search for alternative strategies and consideration of the realities of the existing situation in the country for possible improvement.

2.A study of the practice of community planning in the various disciplines leads to the conclusion that despite their similar means, and the fact that they are influenced by the same social processes, almost no dialogue exists among the various professions engaged in community planning. The diversified activity, rather than contributing to an enrichment of this occupation, has led to a dispersal of the knowledge, has made it difficult to create a significant mass, and has interfered with efficient learning of lessons from experience.

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UNIT IX URBAN DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION: NATIONAL, STATE AND LOCAL LEVELS; STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS OF URBAN DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES

Structure

9.0 INTRODUCTION

The essence of development administration is to bring about change through integrated, organised and properly directed governmental action. In the recent past the governments in most of the developing nations have shifted their focus on development by means of planned change and people's participation. With this shift of administrative concern towards developmental objectives the researchers and practitioners of Public Administration have been forced to conceptualise the developmental situation and to bridge the gaps in administrative theory. The growing welfare functions of the government have brought into limelight the limitations of the traditional theory of administration.

The essence of administration in the present conditions lies in its capacity to bring about change in the structure and behaviour of different administrative institutions, to develop an acceptance for the change and to create a system which can sustain change and improve the capacity of institutions to change. All this calls for renewed efforts on the part of institutions engaged in the tasks of development. Thus development administration as an area of study and as means to realise developmental goals assumes importance. This unit will highlight the meaning, features and genesis of development administration.

9.1 URBAN DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

There is no uniform definition of development administration which is

agreeable to all. But we can atleast arrive at certain basic features and characteristics of order to understand the concept of development administration, we should try to understand the meaning of the concept viz., administration of development and development of administration. i) Administration of Development Development is integral to the aims and activities of the government especially in the developing countries. Because of paucity of resources, human and material in their counties, the need for making optimum utilisation of available means and augmenting new means assumes a great importance. Development administration thus becomes a means through which the governmen€ brings quantitative and qualitative changes in an economy. Government is engaged in not only fixing priorities but also making efforts to realise them. Though Weidner is said to be the - first to conceptually explain the definition of development administration, many other scholars, like Riggs, Ferrel Heady, Montgomary, Gant, Pai Panandikar have attempted to define the term in their own ways. However, before we analyse the different definitions and meanings of the term, it should be mentioned that all of them agree that development administration is an effort towards planned transformation of the economy involving not only the sphere of administration but also formulation of policies and indeed the society as a whole. It is an effort at the synchronisation of changes in all spheres of development-economic, political, social and cultural. Thus development is not only viewed in terms of growth process, but it includes a process of social change. The State plays a leading role in bringing about development through its administrative system. In order to discharge this role it requires a distinct type of. support by administration which involves, as'has been observed by Swerdlow, special understanding of problems in the developing countries. These must be perceptible at different operative levels i.e., officials must make enough different decisions, adopt enough differknt policies and engage in enough different activities to warrant the different designations of development administration. Thus devel-opment administration is simply termed as an action or functioning part of the government administration. It is action-oriented and places the administration at the centre in order to facilitate the attainment of development objectives. For Harry J. Friedman development administration means: i) the implementation of programmes designed to bring about modernity (i.e. socioeconomic progress and nation-building), and ii) the changes within the administrative system which increase its capacity to implement the programmes. According to Hahn Beenlee, development administration is involved in managing a government or an agency so that it acquires an increasing capability to adapt to and act upon new and continuing social changes with a view to achieve sustained growth. Gant observed that development administration is "that aspect of Public Administration in which focus of attention is on org~ising kn~dministerin~ public agencies in such a way. as to stimulate and facilitate &fined programmes of social and economic progress. It has the purpose of making change attractive and possible." Thus development administration involves two elements: 1) the bureaucratic process that initiates and facilitates socio-economic progress by making the optimum use of talents and expertise available; and 2) mobilisation of administrative skills so as to speed up the development process. Development administiation

concentrates on the needs and desires of the people, It is concerned with formulation of plans, programmes, policies and projects and their implementation. It plays a central role in carrying out planned change i.e. it is concerned with plinning, co-ordination, control, monitoring and evaluation of plans and programmes. It is not only concerned with the application of policies as determined by the political representatives in existing situation but also with introducing efforts to modify existing situations so as to serve the cause of the masses. The administration of development implies: i) the execution of programmes designed to bring about progressive improvement ii) the changes within an administrative system which increases its capacity to Development AdmhWstion : implement such programmes. In brief, administration of development involves Conctpt and Mclaiag the following objectives: i) ii) iii) iv) v) vi) . vii) viii) ix) application of innovative strategies for development emphasis on development at the grassroots level. Development has to be a need-oriented and self-reliant process stress on social development and human capital as a major resource development has to be viewed not merely as a technological problem but also as an ideological norm profound and rapid change in order to establish a distinct and just social order recognising and highlighting the unity, rather than dichotomy between politics and administration effective and efficient use of scarce resources creation of a politics-administrative environment which is oriented towards securing basic needs of the population freedom of administrative machinery to express its values and beliefs without fear or favour on programmes and projects. 'ii) Development of Administration or Admiitntive Development Development Administration has to be efficient and effective. For that puQose it has to aim at enlargement of administrative capabilities and structural and behavioural change. It is this aspect of administration that is called administrative develspment or development of administration. In simple terms it means development of administrative system,'of administrative health by introducing-administrative rationalisation and institution building. The purpose implicit in this concept is not merely changing the administrative procedures and channels but also bringing out fundamental change in administration thar leads to: 1) political development, 2) economic growth, and 3). social change. T~L administration should evolve so as to commensurate with societal goals. I Development of administration further means cultural change in administration. The cblonial administrative culture is unsuitable to the changed socio-political ethos 9f the developing world. Our British legacy has adversely affected rhe administration. The obsolete Acts e.g. Police Act, 1861,'cannot take us towards the path of change. Development of administration should refer to the creation of ability to adjusi to new stimuli or changes. The development of administration aims at qualitative and quantitative transformations in administration with an eye on the performance of management of affairs. The term also implies technological changesin administration so as to enable it to adopt new modes or techniques of administration. Thus administrative development focuses on adaptability, autonomy and coherence in . administration. In short, administrative development is concerned with: 1) The capacity of an administrative system to take decisions in order to meet the ever increasing demands coming from the environment and with the objective of achieving larger political and

socioeconomic goals. 2) Increase in size, in specialisation and division of tasks and in the ptofessionalisation'of its personnel. 3) A pattern of increasing effectiveness in the optimum utilisation of available means and further augmentation of the means, if necessary. 4) Increase in administrative capability and capacity. 5) Transformation of existing administrative mechanism into aonew machinery through modernising the bureaucracy by external inducement, transfer of technology and training. . -- 6) Replacement bf initiative, practices etc. with those bas@ on ~eakstic-negd?,-._- cwccped Appmebcs 7) Reducing the dependence on foreign experts by producing adequate trained manpower. 8) Promotion of development initiative. 9) Administrative reorganisation and rationalisation. 10) Making modernisation culturally related. 11) Removing or reducing bureaucratic immobility and widespread corruption. 12) Reorientation of established agencies, and the delegation of administrative powers to them. 13) Creation of administrators who can provide leadership in stimulating and supporting programmes of social and economic improvement. The meaning and importance of administrative development as an ingredient of development administration has been well summed up by Caiden in the following words, "Administrative reform is an essential ing;edient of development in any country, irrespective of the speed and direction of change. Administrative capacity becomes increasingly important in the implementation of new policies, plans and ideas. The improvements in administrative capacity may involve the removal of environmental obstacles, structural alternatives in traditional and innovatory institutions bureaucratically organised or otherwise. This would also necessitate changing individual and group attitudes and performance." The behaviour pattern of bureaucrats is as crucial to development administration as the institutions and structures. The purpose of development of administration is to remove the administrative lag which seriously handicaps governments in planning and executing co-ordinated programmes of economic and social reforms. The predominant concern of development administration is to design and administer such development programmes which meet the developmental objectives. It is the administration geared to the task of achieving certain clearcut and sp-ecified objectives and goals expressed in operational terms. Thus develodment administration is defined as a process of action motivated by and oriented to the achievement of certain predetermined goals. Actually administration of development and development of administration are interrelated concepts. Both are dependent on each other. Administration of development is as important as development of adniinistration. To achieve development goals it is essential that there is proper assessment of resources, proper plan formulation, evaluation and. implementation, adequate involvement of people, emphasis on technological change and self-reliance. At the same time we also need developed bureaucracy, integrity in administration, initiative, innovativeness, delegation of powers, decentralised decision-making etc. Administrative development cannot take place without administrative change and reform. Both the concepts support each other and development of administration is needed for administration of development. As per F. Riggs 'development administration' and 'administrative development' have a chicken and egg kind of relationship. Superiority of one concept over the other cannot be established.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of Development Administration ?

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-------------Explain the Municipalities ?

9.2 NATIONAL / STATE / LOCAL LEVEL STRUCTURES

Municipal governance in India was first introduced in 1687 when the Madras Municipal Corporation was formed, followed by the creation of the Calcutta Municipal Corporation and the Bombay Municipal Corporation in 1726. In 1850,the Improvements in Towns Act was passed by the Government of India that established a system of councillors and gave them administrative authority. Subsequently, Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870 instituted the system of city municipalities and called for the introduction of an elected president to lead them.

In 1882, Lord Ripon's Resolution of Local Self-Government created the outline and structure of municipal governance in India. It introduced a two-tier system of governance to increase governance efficiency through decentralisation of functions. Based on the 1918 Montague-Chelmsford Report, the Government of India Act 1919 introduced the system of 'Dyarchy', where power-sharing arrangements between the state and the local bodies differed, but conformed to the same organisational pattern.

The District Municipalities Act of 1920 transformed the Municipal Councils into elected bodies and granted them powers to flesh out their own budgets.

The Urban Governance: Institutional and Strutural Framework

Government of India Act 1935 brought local government within the purview of the state or provincial government and granted them enhanced powers. The following types of urban local bodies are found in India:

1) Municipal Corporation – Municipal Corporation is established by the Act of state government for the big cities of states and by the Act of Parliament for the big cities of Union Territories. A corporation has three authorities. First is the corporation council headed by the Mayor, who is assisted by the Deputy Mayor. The councillors and Mayor are directly elected by the people. Council is a deliberative and legislative organ of the corporation. Second organ of the corporation are the standing committees to deal with various activities like health, education, public works and are empowered to take decisions in their respective fields. The third authority of the corporation is the Municipal Commissioner, who is a government officer and is responsible for the

implementation of the decisions taken by the council and standing committees.

2) Municipalities – They are setup by the Acts of state legislature for the administration of small cities or towns. It also has three authorities. First the municipal council is the legislative branch of the municipality, and is headed by the Chairman, who in turn is assisted by a Deputy Chairman. The standing committees facilitate the work of municipality in various fields such as health, taxation finance etc. The third authority of the municipality is the Chief Municipal Officer, who is appointed by the state government and is responsible for the general administration of the municipality.

3) Notified Area Committee – This may be created either in a town which is
fast developing or which may not fulfill the conditions for the creation of a municipality. It is known as Notified Area Committee because it is created through a notification of the state government published in the official gazette. It is not a statutory body and all its members and chairman are nominated by the government. It performs similar functions as performed
by a municipality.

4) Town Area Committee – It is created by a separate Act of state government for the administration of small towns. It performs a limited number of functions like street lighting, drainage, etc. As provided in the Act, it may be wholly elected or totally nominated or partly elected or partly nominated ody.

5) Cantonment Boards – They are established to perform municipal functions for civilian population living in cantonment or military areas. Its noticeable feature is that it is created and works under the central Act of 1924 under the administrative control of Ministry of Defence. There are three types of Cantonment Boards depending upon the number of civilian population in the Cantonment Area. It consists of partly elected and partly nominated members. The members are elected for a three year term. The military officer commanding the cantonment station is the ex officio chairman of the Cantonment Board.

6) Townships – Townships are established by a public sector undertaking as its housing colony to provide civil amenities to its employees living in township. It has no elected members and its affairs are managed by a Town
Administrator appointed by the public sector undertaking.

Urban Governance 7) Port Trusts – Such urban bodies are established by an Act of the Parliament to manage and protect ports and to provide civic amenities to the port area. It is headed by an official appointed by the central government. It has both elected and nominated members.

8) Special Purpose Agencies – The state governments establish some special purpose agencies to perform some specific functions of municipalities. They function as separate bodies not under the control of municipalities. They may be created either by an act of State Legislature or by an order of the executive. Some of these agencies are Housing

Board, Water Supply Undertaking, Electricity Supply Undertakings, Urban Development Authorities, etc.

9.6 FUNCTIONS OF URBAN DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES

In this section, you will read about the role of government agencies in development. Various government agencies play important roles in directing the development activities to be pursued in both the short and the long run. The role of a few important government agencies that play an important part in development in India is discussed. These agencies are:

i) The National Planning Commission -

Dynamics of Development ii) The Finance Commission of India

iii) The State Planning Board

iv) The District Planning Boards Committees

The National Planning Commission Rudimentary economic planning by government agencies first began in India in the 1930s under colonial British rule. The colonial government of India formally established a planning board that functioned from 1944 to 1946. Private industrialists and economists formulated at least three development plans in 1944.After India gained independence, a formal model of planning was adopted, and the Planning Commission, reporting directly to the Prime Minister of India, was established. Accordingly, the National Planning Commission was set up on 15 March 1950, with Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru as the chairman. The First Five-year Plan was launched in 195 1. Now, the Eleventh Five Year Plan is underway in the country.

A few important functions of National Planning Commission are:

a) To make an assessment of the material, capital and human resources of the country, including technical personnel, and to investigate the possibilities of augmenting those resources that are found to be deficient in relation to the nation's requirement

b) To formulate a Plan for the most effective and balanced utilization of country's resources

C) To determine the priorities define the stages of the implementation of the Plan, and to propose the allocation of resources for due completion of each

d) To indicate the factors tend to retard economic development, and determine the conditions which, in view of the existing social and political situation, need to be established for the successful execution of the Plan

e) To determine the nature of the machinery, which will be necessary for the successful implementation of each stage of the Plan, in all its aspects

f) To appraise, from time to time, the progress achieved at each stage of the Plan, and to recommend the adjustments of policy and measures that such appraisal may show to be necessary

g) To make interim recommendations based after considering the prevailing economic conditions, current policies, measures, and development programmes.

From a highly centralized planning system, the Indian economy is gradually moving towards indicative planning, where the Planning Commission

concerns itself with building a long term strategic vision of the future, and decides on the priorities of the nation. It works out sectoral targets and provides promotional stimuli for the economy to grow in the desired direction. The Planning Commission plays an integrative role in the development of a holistic approach to the policy formulation in critical areas of human and economic development.

The emphasis of the Commission is on maximizing the output by using the limited resources optimally. Instead of looking for mere increase in the plan Development Agencies outlays, the effort is to look for increase in the efficiency of utilization of the allocations.

ii) Finance Commission of India

The Constitution of India provides for the establishment of a Finance Commission for the purpose of allocation of certain resources of revenue between the Union and the State Governments. The President of India established the Finance Commission under Article 280 of the Constitution.

The qualifications, powers and procedures of the Commission itself are regulated

by the Finance Commission (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1951. The Finance Commission is constituted to define financial relations between the Centre and ' the States. Under the provision of Article 280 of the Constitution, the President appoints a Finance Commission for the specific purpose of devolution of nonplan revenue resources.

Under Article 280 of the Constitution, the Finance Commission is required to make recommendations to the President about The distribution of net proceeds of taxes to be shared between the centre and the states, and the allocation between the states of the respective share of such proceeds.

The principles which should govern the grants-in-aid by the center to states Out of the Consolidated Fund of India. The measures needed to augment the consolidated fund of a state to supplement the resources of the Panchayats and the Municipalities in the State on the basis of the recommendations made by the State Finance Commission.

Any other matter referred to it by the President of India, in the interests of sound finance. .,

The Finance Commission has the following powers

The Commission shall have all the powers of the Civil Court, as per the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908. It can call any witness, or, can ask for the production of any public record, or document, from any court or office. It can ask any person to give information or documents on matters as it may feel to be useful, or relevant. It can function as a civil court in discharging its duties.

iii) State Finance Commission

The 731~ constitutional amendment envisages that in every five year, the state government shall appoint a Finance Commission to review the financial aspects

of the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRI), and Urban Local Bodies (LILBs). The State Finance Commission (SFC) will give recommendations with regard to

i) The distribution between the state and the Panchayats of the net proceeds of taxes, duties, tolls and fees leviable by the state which may be divided between

them, and how allocation would be made among the various levels of panchayats Dynamicsof Development ii) What taxes, duties, tolls and fees may be assigned to the panchayats

iii) Grant -in-aids to the panchayats.

The report of the commission together with the action taken report shall be laid before the state legislature. Many states have appointed their third State Finance Commission. The State Finance Commission reports are referred to in the matter of the allocation of resources to different sectors in the states.

iv) State Planning Boards

The State Planning Boards were formed, primarily, to assist the Planning Commission in allocating resources to states, to enable the state governments to formulate development plans based on a scientific assessment of the resources of the state, and the growth priorities. The boards were assigned the task of preparing an Annual Economic Review to be presented, along with the Budget Document to the state legislatures.

The main functions of the State Planning Boards are:

1. To assess the resources of the state, and to prepare schemes for their effective Utilization
2. To assist the District Planning Officers in preparing district plan proposals, so that they may be incorporated in the overall Plan
3. To ascertain the obstacles to growth of the state economy, and to suggest measures for removing regional.imbalances.
4. To monitor the progress of Plan schemes, and to suggest changes in developmental policies To decide Plan priorities.

v) District Planning Boards and Committees

The decentralized planning process started long ago in India, and, in 1969, the . Union Planning Commission issued guidelines for preparing district plans.

Realizing that the planning machinery and competency were not yet developed at the district level at the time, efforts were redirected, in later years, to strengthen the state level planning process. In the early 1980s, a Working Group, under the Chairmanship of Professor C.H. Hanumantha Rao, was constituted to develop guidelines for district plans. Based on the recommendations of this Committee, the Seventh Five Year Plan adopted decentralized planning at the district level as one of the major strategies to achieve plan targets.

Local self-government is the prime instrument of decentralization at the grass root level. The intention of local self-government is to shift from bureaucratic administration to democratic administration, and to formulate, and execute development programmes through people's participation, and to instill political consciousness among the people. They act as vehicles in carrying back to the people the power that really belongs to them. They ensure self-governance through directly elected representatives.

According to Dr. D.R. Gadgil, the primary requirements of district planning are the knowledge of local conditions. and the association of local with formulation, and the implementation of development plans. The well known Development Agencies Economist, Gunnar Myrdal pointed out, way back in 1968, "The ideal has always been that the plan should come from the people

and meet their wishes and needs, and have their support in thought, as well, as deed". The points put forth in favour of decentralized planning are it facilitates the formulation of locally relevant programmes, with reference to natural endowments, and felt needs of the people it makes bureaucrats more accountable to the people it also facilitates the participation of ordinary people in the planning and development process At the state level, the District Planning Board, and, more recently, after the 73rd Constitutional Amendment, the District Planning Committees have begun to function. The important functions of District Planning Board are i) To formulate a long term district perspective plan, and to evolve a strategy of planned development for the district, on the basis of felt needs of the people, and local priorities ii) To prepare a priority-wise list of schemes and programmes, taking into account the resources available from the plan fund and community contribution, well before the beginning of each year

iii) To take appropriate measures for the proper implementation of schemes and programmes and projects

iv) To monitor the progress of projects, and for this purpose the District Planning and Development Board may meet as frequently as necessary. The Board will send performance reports to the State Planning Board at regular intervals.

V) To encourage the panchayats and other local bodies to implementat development projects themselves. They are responsible for the maximum involvement of people, and for developing confidence in their leadership, and in their ability to implement development work. The involvement should be both in terms of ilnancial and physical parameters

vi) To make efforts to generate additional resources for developmental work

with the cooperation of people. NGOs, NRIs, and other agencies and; vii) Any other related function that might be assigned by the State Planning Board.

In the 73rd Constitution Amendment, Article 243 ZD envisages that there shall be a District Planning Committee in every district to consolidate the plans prepared by the panchayats and municipalities in the district. Now, in most states, the District Planning Committees (DPC) have been constituted. The Act envisaged that the chairman of the Zilla Parishad (the District Panchayat) be the chairman of DPC. However, in many states, DPCs are headed by District Commissioners. The function of the DPCs is more, or less, equivalent to the District Planning Board. Recently, the DPC has been instrumental in the preparation of District Agriculture Plan, District BRGF (Backward Region Grant Fund) plan and District NREGS (National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme) now called MREGA (Mahatma Gandhi Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme) Plan in mo4t of I hc states

9.7 LETS SUM UP

Development agencies play an important role in the development of a nation. In India, the National Planning Commission, the Finance Commission, the State

Finance Commission, and State Planning.Board play vital roles in the formulation of national and state plans. At the district level, under the umbrella of decentralized planning, the District Planning Committees are being involved in preparation of district development plans. This unit also discusses the role and the functions of various bilateral and UN agencies, such as the World Bank, the ADB, UNICEF, USAID, CIDA, along with others and their work in the development of various sectors. The development agencies, including NGO's and banks, also play an important role in the socioeconomic development of a nation.

9.8 Check Your Progress

1. Write the meaning of Development Administration ?
2. Explain about the Municipalities ?

9.9 Answer to Check Your Progress

1. Development administration thus becomes a means through which the governmen€ brings quantitative and qualitative changes in an economy. Government is engaged in not only fixing priorities but also making efforts to realise them.

2. Municipalities – They are setup by the Acts of state legislature for the administration of small cities or towns. It also has three authorities. First the municipal council is the legislative branch of the municipality, and is headed by the Chairman, who in turn is assisted by a Deputy Chairman. The standing committees facilitate the work of municipality in various fields such as health, taxation finance etc. The third authority of the municipality is the Chief Municipal Officer, who is appointed by the state government and is responsible for the general administration of the municipality.

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UNIT X URBAN SERVICES AND URBAN DEFICIENCIES; METROPOLITAN DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITIES, HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION (HUDCO) AND UNITED NATIONS CENTRE FOR HUMAN SETTLEMENT (UNCHS); HOUSING BOARD.

Structure

10.0 INTRODUCTION

Urban is one of the important and most growing sector particularly in developing countries. One of the predictions envisages that there will soon be four billion city dwellers on the planet, each of them producing consuming and travelling.

These growing millions have to be fed, provided with housing, safe drinking water, sanitation and energy, and means of transportation. Management of these services is critical to raise the quality of living in city life. Many urban problems are the result of poor management, poor planning and absence of coherent urban policies rather than urbanization itself. Urban Management although a fragile yet a most important component of urban planning and development. In this unit we will cover the meaning and scope of urban management and also management of urban services. After reading this unit, you will be able to:

i) Define urban management and delineate its scope
ii) Explain management and delivery of urban services
iii) Describe the pre-requisites of good urban management

10.1 URBAN SERVICES AND URBAN DEFICIENCIES

Urban services and mobility are key to inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

cities and human settlements. The New Urban Agenda needs to make concrete recommendations for cities and human settlements to become inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable by including access for all to adequate, safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable basic services and infrastructure. This requires particular attention to the most vulnerable groups in society, such as the urban poor, women, children, older people and those with disabilities. Urban services like water, energy, waste treatment and transport are vital enablers for social and economic development opportunities and are thus key to achieving the Agenda 2030 and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Hence, access to these services ought to be a basic human right.

Over the coming decades, services and infrastructure for transport, water, sanitation, waste management and energy have to be provided for a rapidly growing urban population. Global urban growth poses enormous challenges, in particular with regard to greenhouse gas emissions, social exclusion, safety and air quality. This requires a transition towards more sustainable, safe and inclusive provision of urban services. Providing access to urban amenities, transport has a key role to play in this.

Furthermore, with greater vulnerability to various types of risks, there is more need to improve the resilience of all service-providing infrastructures. Finally, equal access to basic services for all groups and communities should be available, with the emphasis on affordability and safe environments where basic services can be enjoyed for all, especially for the most vulnerable and those dependent on these services for living a decent life. Services and access to amenities are not merely the provision of infrastructure but also boosting efficiency, embracing local innovation and grassroot initiatives. Technology solutions must be fit for purpose to contribute to equality and access to urban services for all, including vulnerable groups. The advancement of Smart City concepts and the high pace of ICT becoming nested within the urban sphere both call for further yet careful integration into infrastructure and service polices under the conditions of inclusiveness, safety, resilience and sustainability, while taking into account the distinctive governance and innovation dynamics of urban services and infrastructure. Resilience may be improved by developing adaptive systems and networks, including decentralised ones facilitating the self-sufficiency of municipalities and communities.

Towards new modes of governance - Time for concerted action A human-centred, inclusive and multi-level governance approach, integrated urban development, applying the principle of subsidiarity and appropriate legislative frameworks and enforcement mechanisms are critical to the delivery of urban services and ensure coordinated action. To support this, intra- and inter-city learning and capacity building can help to leapfrog to sustainable solutions. International efforts to implement the New Urban Agenda need to focus on all levels of governance and decision-making to ensure that multilateral and bilateral organisations, local authorities as well as national governments conform to and adopt the Urban Agenda. Thus the New Urban Agenda should respond to the following key messages.

Key messages on Urban Services and Technologies

1. Access for all

2. Cities have the responsibility to provide adequate, sustainable and resilient urban infrastructure and services to all. These refer to both high quality living conditions – through services such as safe water supply, waste management and electricity – and to facilitating convenient and equal, non-discriminatory access to urban opportunities like jobs, education, healthcare and public spaces through transport systems and mobility services. To supply these services, local authorities need funding stability and predictability as well as appropriate policy and planning
capabilities. This requires support by national governments and the international community.

Efficient use

Efficient and effective use of urban services require local and national policies that support people to reduce the consumption of finite resources and shift demand toward sustainable options, including reducing water, waste, energy use, and demand for private motorised travel. Local and national governments should prioritise dense urban development and employ the most appropriate policy and
technology options to support sustainable choices for services, consumption and mobility.

Local leadership

Local authorities should take responsibility and leadership for inclusive well-being and the sustainability of cities. To do so effectively, they need to engage and develop alliances with the relevant stakeholders at local, national, and international level.

National policies and funding support

National governments need to enable local authorities to provide adequate services to urban population. This includes frameworks for the funding of the development and operation of services and the ability for local authorities to associate and coordinate beyond city boundaries.

URBAN DEFICIENCIES

The promise of jobs and prosperity, among other factors, pulls people to cities. Half of the global population already lives in cities, and by 2050 two-thirds of the world's people are expected to live in urban areas. But in cities two of the most pressing problems facing the world today also come together: poverty and environmental degradation.

Poor air and water quality, insufficient water availability, waste-disposal problems, and high energy consumption are exacerbated by the increasing population density and demands of urban environments. Strong city planning will be essential in managing these and other difficulties as the world's urban areas swell.

Threats

- Intensive urban growth can lead to greater poverty, with local governments unable to provide services for all people. Concentrated energy use leads to greater air pollution with significant impact on human health.
- Automobile exhaust produces elevated lead levels in urban air.
- Large volumes of uncollected waste create multiple health hazards.
- Urban development can magnify the risk of environmental hazards

such as flash flooding.

- Pollution and physical barriers to root growth promote loss of urban tree cover.
    - Animal populations are inhibited by toxic substances, vehicles, and the loss of habitat and food sources.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of Urban Services ?

Write brief note on United Nations of Human Settlement ?

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10.2 METROPOLITAN DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITIES

The earliest evidence of town-planning was found in India in the ruins at Mohenjo-Daro, Harappa, Lothal, Kalbangan and other sites of the Indus Valley complex. The remains of urban centres in India reveal certain features of urban planning such as street system, division of a city into specialized functional quarters, development of commanding central cites for palaces, temples and what would now be called civic buildings and advanced system of fortification, water supply, drainage, etc.

Town-planning is an essential pre-requisite of organized civic life. The planning of a town consisted

1. the orderly arrangement of the city's residential, commercial and administrative divisions in such a manner that each part could function without much overlapping;
2. an efficient system of roads connecting different parts of the town, and the town with the outside world;
3. the provision of safe, sanitary and comfortable housing in a variety of dwelling types to meet the needs of all types of families;
4. the provision of recreation, schools and other community services of a high standard;and
5. the provision of adequate water supply, public utilities and services.1

Metropolitan planning in India still has to face a fluid condition on account of the economic condition of the people. Rural folk do not like to move into towns voluntarily they do so for a better income. In the process they suffer considerable psychological and environmental tensions. For their integration into a new society, it is essential to undertake community development on a fairly extensive scale simultaneously with physical planning for cities. This will have to be as a basic part of the over-all programme as national economic development and will naturally have to be concurrently linked up with a nation-wide programme for controlling the growth of population.

While the technical aspects of planning are of vital importance, the existence of efficient administrative machinery is equally important. It will enable plans to be implemented in a properly phased and coordinated manner. Where a region is completely within the jurisdiction of a State Government, the problem is obviously easy. Where the region extends into several political jurisdictions, the problem gets complicated, as in the case of Delhi. Adjustments have to be made not only with the various governments concerned but also with the local authorities. For the development of the Delhi metropolitan area, which three political jurisdictions of three states, co-ordination and consultation at all stages are necessary for fruition of plans. This co-ordination has already been achieved at the technical plan-making level. Achievement at the administrative and political levels will involve the active participation of the central and state governments and the local bodies concerned.

Regional plans transcending political jurisdictions, as in the case of the Delhi metropolitan area and the national capital region, call for vision and imagination, apart from day-to-day co-ordination and understanding. If the purpose of planning is clear and if the objectives are understood, smooth and active collaboration is likely to ensure.

10.3 HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION (HUDCO)

In 1998, the National Housing and Habitat Policy (NHHP) was announced which specifically emphasized that housing construction in both rural and urban areas should be left in the hands of the private sector and that the government should restrict itself to the role of a facilitator. The Policy promised "Shelter to All" by the year 2001 but this promise was to be realized through the invisible hand of the market which was supposed to ensure affordable housing to all if all impediments to its efficient functioning were removed. As a follow up to the recommendations of the NHHP 1998, the Two Million Housing Programme was launched in 1998-99. It was a loan based scheme promoting the construction of 20 lakh additional housing units every year (13 lakh for rural areas and 7 lakh for urban areas). Out of this HUDCO was to meet the target of 4 lakh dwelling units in urban areas and 6 lakh in rural areas annually. In 1999, the Draft National Slum Policy was announced which proposed the integration of slum dwellers in the mainstream of urban life through in-situ up gradation. The Draft Policy included all underserviced settlements in its definition of slums and proposed their up gradation and improvement as opposed to eviction. It also spoke about granting tenure to slum dwellers inhabiting government land apart from providing them with basic civic amenities. The Draft National Slum Policy was never adopted, however in 2001, a Rs. 20 billion subsidy based scheme called the ValmikiAmbedkarAwas Yojana (VAMBAY) was started with the aim to provide/ upgrade shelter to urban slum dwellers.

In the 9th Plan period two other major steps were taken to further the process of liberalization of land and real estate markets. The first step was the repeal of

the Urban Land (Ceiling and Regulation) Act in 1999. The second major step was taken in 2002 when the government allowed 100 percent Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in integrated townships, including housing, commercial premises, hotels and resorts. FDI was also permitted in infrastructure projects such as roads, bridges, mass rapid transit systems and for the manufacturing of building materials. The minimum area to be developed was fixed at 100 acres.

The 2001 Census had shown that contrary to the expectations and predictions of a wide array of actors, the rate of growth of urban population was steadily declining. This has been attributed to cities becoming inhospitable to poor migrants due to the promulgation of neo-liberal urban policies. However, the 10th Plan celebrates this fact and attributes it to the success of rural development programmes along with the limited availability of land for squatting in central urban areas. The Plan identifies urbanization as a key determinant of the economic growth in the 1980s and 1990s, boosted by economic liberalization. The 10^{th} Plan (2002-07) was prepared in the backdrop of the Union Budget of 2002-03 which had announced radical measures to push cities into carrying out comprehensive urban reforms. The overriding thrust of the 10th Plan was to promote overhauling of the legislative, governance and administrative structure of cities through a set of market-friendly urban reforms and promotion of PPPs in urban infrastructure and services. A lot of emphasis was placed on making urban local bodies financially strong so that they have to rely less and less on state transfers. To enable ULBs to raise their own resources the Plan advocated reform in property tax, levying of user charges, increasing non-tax revenues, controlling establishment costs, better utilization of municipal assets and
overhauling municipal accounting systems. These reforms, it was suggested, would enhance the credit-worthiness of ULBs and make them capable to mobilising funds from capital market and investors. The Plan also spoke about substantially increasing investment in up gradation of urban infrastructure and services but made it clear that central assistance in this regard would be made conditional upon states and ULBs carrying out sector reforms, in particular better standard of services and levying of user charges

10.4 United Nations Centre for Human Settlement (UNCHS)

Building Partnerships and Solutions in an Urbanizing World The United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) was established in 1978, two years after the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, held in Vancouver, Canada. The Centre serves as the lead agency for the human settlements development activities of the United Nations family, as well as for the global exchange of information about human settlements conditions and trends.

Habitat's integrated programme of policy advice, operational research, technical cooperation, capacity-building and awareness-raising focuses on priority areas defined by Governments through the United Nations Commission on Human Settlements, its governing body, and contained in the Centre's Work Programme. These areas are:

Shelter and social services;

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urban management;
environment and infrastructure; and
assessment, information and monitoring.

Currently, Habitat has 235 operational programmes and projects underway in 80 countries, focusing on capacity-building, human settlements management and development, basic services and infrastrucure, and housing. The Centre's principal collaborating partners in the UN system are: the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs and the World Health Organization (WHO). Habitat also closely collaborates with bilateral and external assistance agencies, international and national non-governmental organizations (NGOs), associations of local authorities, parliamentary associations, women and youth organizations and private sector bodies.

At present, Habitat is in the process of re-organization which will enable it to effectively spearhead the global implementation of the Habitat Agenda -- the Global Plan of Action adopted at the Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, held in Istanbul, Turkey in June 1996. To execute the key functions outlined in the Habitat Agenda, and to meet the expectations of partners and national Governments alike, the existing organizational structure and working methods of the Centre are being re-focused to converge on its new strategic tasks and responsibilities. The Centre's medium-term plan for 1998-2001, approved by the UN General Assembly at its fifty-first session, has the implementation of the Habitat Agenda as its primary goal.

10.5 HOUSING BOARD

Housing Board in India has been set up in most of the Indian states by the government of India in order to promote the property market's expansion.

The board for housing in India sees to the proper development of the ideally located and well-placed colonies. To boost housing projects all over the country the Housing Boards in India have been formed in various states.

The objectives of the Housing Boards in India are:

To provide housing accommodation to needy citizens at reasonable prices

To construct houses and to allot them under the categories of high income group, middle income group, and low income group

To select the sites for housing and decide the services to be provided

To formulate schemes for self financing that help the middle and high income groups

To construct commercial complexes, multi-storied buildings, and shops and then to lease them out in rent so as to secure financial resources for the boards.

Some of the various housing boards in India are as under:

Gujarat Housing Board
Andhra Pradesh Housing Board
Himachal Pradesh Housing Board
Orissa Housing Board
Madhya Pradesh Housing Board

Among Indian Housing Boards, the one belonging to Gujarat was been set up

on May 1st, 1960 and has constructed over 176,754 houses in the entire state. The Andhra Pradesh Housing Board was established on July 1st, 1960 and has constructed projects under various categories such as low, middle, and high income groups and built around 69,398 houses. The Orissa Housing Board was set up in 1968 and it has built around 28,500 houses in the state. The Madhya Pradesh Housing Board had been set up under the 1972 Madhya Pradesh Griha Nirman Mandal Adhiniyam Act. It has constructed a lot of houses all over the state. The Housing Boards in India have been instrumental in providing accommodation for lakhs of Indians across the country. Housing Boards in India have been successful to a large extent and the government of India needs to ensure the availability of funds for the housing boards to ensure that they continue with their projects.

10.6 LETS SUM UP

Urban population of India is larger than the total population of many countries. Despite this important fact, one has to accept that India with about 27 per cent of its population living in its urban areas is less urbanised. Also the spread of its urban population is not even. The large cities especially the metropolitan cities have most of the total urban population. Small and medium towns have not flourished. Poor migrants from rural areas bypass these towns and arrive at large cities in search of employment. About 15 per cent of the total urban population of the States of India lives inslums. The actual picture is grimmer. Around 23 per cent of the urban population of the towns reporting slums was living in slums in 2001. The cities with more than one million population have high percentage of population living in slums. Urban basic services are poor in urban India and are less than the requirement. Urbanisation is happening in India. But it has its problems. Major problems of urban areas of India are overcrowding, congestion, inadequate basic services and urban infrastructure, lack of efficient transport facilities, air pollution, environmental pollution and existence of slums.

10.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Urban Services ?
2. Write the brief note on United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) ?

10.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1.Urban services and mobility are key to inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable cities and human settlements. The New Urban Agenda needs to make concrete recommendations for cities and human settlements to become inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable by including access for all to adequate, safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable basic services and infrastructure.

2.Building Partnerships and Solutions in an Urbanizing World The United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) was established in 1978, two years after the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, held in Vancouver, Canada. The Centre serves as the lead agency for the human settlements development activities of the United Nations family, as well as for the global exchange of information about human settlements conditions and trends.

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UNIT XI ROLE OF VOLUNTARY AGENCIES IN URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Structure

11.0 INTRODUCTION

Voluntary organizations are also known as non profitable or non Paid organization. Voluntary organization means a group of people working together voluntarily to help the needy persons with their needs and resources available to them. They not work for personal intention but they work for humanity, welfare of people and development. Voluntary organizations are initiated by individuals or group of individuals voluntarily for development, particularly for disadvantaged sections of society. Voluntary organization is organized for voluntary action. "Voluntary organization is a group of persons organized on the basis of voluntary membership without state control for the furtherance of some common interests of its members" David .L.Sills.The term voluntarism is derived from the latin word "voluntas" which means will or freedom. It is that action or activity which is not diverted or controlled by the state. It is an activity which is governed by its own members and not by any outside force. Thus we can say that voluntary organization is a group of people who spend their free time helping others without monetary compensation and do not make a profit from their activities. It is a structured group of people who have come together of their own accord for a social rather than a commercial purpose.

11.1 Voluntary Agencies

In a democratic, socialistic and welfare society, voluntary organisations are indispensible and they perform a number of functions for the welfare of its members, the development of a country, integration and solidarity of the society and nation , voluntary organisation have enormous impact on the well being of the communities worldwide. Things of all the ways that volunteers make a difference in day today life. Volunteer organisation deliver critical services to fire fighters and are participating in search and rescue, to delivering meals to homeless youths, to maiming the phone lines at domestic violence and

sexual assault centers the volunteers also clear drain from parks and roadways in India. It frees up time for city employees to focus on other services. The community is beautified when volunteers participate in clean ups, gardening and planting. Voluntary organisation provides day care and elder care to families that may not be able to afford these valuable services without assistance. Schools are strengthened when volunteers donate time and resources to tutor students, building illiteracy and knowledge. Support for youth for motoring and personal growth of community youth, thus encouraging them to become strong citizens and future volunteers. When a community is doing well as a whole and individual tend to thrice as well. The services provided by the volunteers are really great and full of courage that otherwise might have been provided at higher cost or not provided at all. Voluntary organisation not only helps to keep our environment neat and tidy but they provide end number of services like free medical camps, free meditation, education related programs, agricultural programs, free coaching and support young people with everything and contribute veterinary expertise to organisations like animal shelters, wild life rehabilitations centers. According to corporation for national and community services 61.8 million individuals the United States contributed 8 billion hours of volunteerism in 2008 alone. The economic value of all these volunteering is 162 billion US dollars. This is roughly equivalent to the 2008 gross domestic product of Egypt.

11.3 ROLE OF VOLUNTARY AGENCIES IN URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

There is no doubt that voluntary agencies have been playing a pioneering role in rural development activities. They have also exhibited the qualities of flexibility of service, personal touch and proximity to the clientele. In addition, they have demonstrated the capacity to initiate and experiment with new programmes and showed sensitivity to meet difficult problems in ways that cannot be adopted by the state. However, it is necessary to envisage the following role for these bodies in the context of village base organisations.

a) The voluntary agencies have to supplement and not to compete with government efforts. The government should not consider their activities as duplication.

b) They act as eyes and ears of the people at the rural level and act as a source of reliable feedback to government so that it can design the policies and programmes accordingly.

c) It is possible for the voluntary agencies to reach a large number of people and set an example for others.

d) Voluntary bodies, quite often, take initiative in the implementation of certain acts such as Minimum Wages Act, Abolition of Bonded Labour Act etc., in letter and in spirit. Through public interest litigation and administrative measures, these bodies could activise the system and make it respond.

e) Dissemination of information is another potential area in which the voluntary agencies is of immense use. It is quite often seen that information regarding various schemes, programmes projects etc., do not reach the rural poor.

Information is power and the role of the voluntary body is to distribute such power and make it accessible to the rural poor.

f) Voluntary sector has been in the forefront in utilizing rural skills and talent. Further, it is possible to minimis? the dependency syndrome through various methods and a sense of self-reliance has to be instilled among the villagers.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of Voluntary Agencies ?

Write any two role of voluntary organizations ?

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11. 4 LETS SUM UP

In this lesson, various issues have been analysed. A number of issues and problems indicate the wide ranging scope of the subject. Voluntary action is looked upon by many as an instrument of mass mobilisation or involvement of large number of people and, thus, help to reduce the chasm between the 'governed' and the 'governors'. Voluntary action in patnership with the government is an important issue. The presence of healthy atmosphere and goodwill between government and voluntary agencies is a basic prerequisite to strengthen good relations between the two. At present, there appears to be mutual suspicion and lack of trust in each other. On several occasions, voluntary agencies have been valued so long as they function within the existing "order" and follow directives of government. Any agency that questions the existing order is normally treated as a subject of law and order problem, demanding repressive action.

A proper measuring norm has to be developed to assess the working of voluntary organisations in this country. Apart from this, distribution of funds remain a controversial and sensitive subject. It became acute when funds came from international bodies. Some critics point out that the foreign donors use these voluntary bodies, to whom they donate money, as clever ploy to weaken the power of the state as a part of the large game of global power politics. Further, selflessness and selfishness cannot always be distinguished easily. Organisations, functioning at different levels in different areas, suffer from lack of coordination. In spite of these and other problems, with their uniqueness of the operational abilities, the voluntary agencies have a crucial role to play in rural transformation.

11. 5 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Voluntary Organisation ?

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2. Write any two role of Voluntary organization ?

11.6 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Voluntary organizations are also known as non profitable or non Paid organization. Voluntary organization means a group of people working together voluntarily to help the needy persons with their needs and resources available to them. They not work for personal intention but they work for humanity, welfare of people and development. Voluntary organizations are initiated by individuals or group of individuals voluntarily for development, particularly for disadvantaged sections of society.

2. Voluntary bodies, quite often, take initiative in the implementation of certain acts such as Minimum Wages Act, Abolition of Bonded Labour Act etc., in letter and in spirit. Through public interest litigation and administrative measures, these bodies could activise the system and make it respond. a) The voluntary agencies have to supplement and not to compete with government efforts. The government should not consider their activities as duplication.

b) They act as eyes and ears of the people at the rural level and act as a source of reliable feedback to government so that it can design the policies and programmes accordingly.

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UNIT XII URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES: FIVE YEAR PLANS AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT; MADRAS URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS (MUDP) I & II

Structure

12.0 INTRODUCTION

As per 2001 population census 285.35 million people reside in urban areas. It constitutes 27.8% of the total population of the country. In post-independence era, while population of India has grown three times, the urban population has grown five times. The rising urban population has also given rise to increase in the number of urban poor.As per 2001 estimates, the slum population is estimated to be 61.8 million. The ever increasing number of slum dwellers causes tremendous pressure on urban basic services and infrastructure. In order to cope with massive problems that have emerged as a result of rapid urban growth, the government of India has launched many programmes since independence. One of the illustrious examples is JNNURM launched recently to rejuvenate urban development in India.

After studying this unit you should be able to:

- Describe various urban development programmes launched in India since independence.
- Discuss JNNURM.

12.1 URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

Urban development programmes with a focus on reduction and alleviation of poverty, has been one of the objectives of five-year plans in the country since the beginning of the planned era. This was, however, brought into the core of

planning exercise only during the Fifth Year Plan. The consumption levels of different commodities were projected in this plan by taking higher growth rates for people in lower consumption brackets. Extensive research has since then been carried out to study the dimensions of poverty, its temporal trend, spatial pattern etc.

Urban Development Plans,

Policies and Programmes This led to identification of theoretical solutions for reduction of poverty and launching of programmes during the past Five Year Plans. An analysis of the government policies and programmes and investment pattern during the fifties, sixties and seventies reveals a distinct bias for urban areas. Public sector investment in infrastructure and basic services improved the level of services in urban centers, which accentuated the rural urban disparity. These investments were concentrated mostly in the large cities that attracted private investments as well as subsidized institutional funds. This resulted in creation of employment opportunities at a higher level of productivity earnings than in rural areas, widening the gap between their income levels. This period also witnessed the creation of a number of Boards and Corporations at the state level and development authorities at the city level. Considerable funds were routed through these agencies that improved the level of services for at least a section of the urban population.

Removal of poverty received attention initially in the Fifth Five Year Plan. The earlier plans did not emphasize on proper analysis of the dimension of poverty. The Fifth Plan noted that the consumption levels of the bottom 30 per cent of the country's population remained below the minimum of Rs.40.6 per capita per month at 1972-73 prices. No distinction was, however, made between rural and urban poverty. The plan stressed poverty could be removed by promoting economic growth and through proper implementation of the national level programmes like Minimum Needs Programme. The Sixth Plan addressed the problem of poverty in a more focused manner and recognized that economic growth process by itself was not enough to tackle poverty. It noted that about per cent of the rural population and 41 per cent of the urban population were living below the poverty line in 1979-80. Specific programmes like Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns, Minimum Needs Programme, Urban

Basic Services, Integrated Rural Development Programme, National Rural Development Programme (NRDP) etc. were recommended for urban and rural areas. The Sixth Plan showed a distinct bias in favour of rural poverty by implementing specific programmes. The programmes that have been launched since independence have been briefly discussed in the following section. i) Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT): The programme was launched in 1979-80 basically for developing small and medium towns partly by providing basic services to poor and also by improving their economic conditions so that the growth of metro cities could be arrested. Initially, the scope of the programme was restricted to towns with population below one hundred thousand as per the 1971 Census. It had been decided in the Eighth Plan to include cities having population of five

hundred thousand as per the Census of 1991.

ii) Low Cost Sanitation Programme (LCS): The goal of providing sanitation facilities to eighty per cent of urban population was fixed in the early eighties with the announcement of the UN Decadal Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation. Accordingly, a centrally sponsored scheme was launched in 1980-81, with the objective of eliminating manual scavenging through conversion of dry latrines. It covered all the households, which have dry latrines and those having no latrines including slum and squatter settlements.

Urban Development

Programmes in India Under this scheme, loan and Central subsidy were both channeled through

HUDCO.

iii) Shelter and Sanitation for Pavement Dwellers (SSPD): This programme was launched in large urban areas including metropolitan cities, having sizable shelter less population. The Tenth Plan has pointed out that the provision of subsidy under the scheme has to be adequate to make it feasible for the NGOs to take up shelter construction. The grants per bed should also be revised to achieve the objective of providing a sufficient number of nights – shelters for the homeless women and children. The Pay and Use component of this scheme is being merged with the Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan of VAMBAY. iv) Accelerated Urban Water Supply Programme (AUWSP): This is another centrally sponsored scheme launched during the Eighth Plan for providing water to the towns having less than 20,000 population as per the Census of 1991, operationally under the State PHED to be funded by the Central Government, State Government and concerned ULBs on 50:45:5 ratio. The Centre met the entire cost in Union Territories.

v) National Slum Development Programme (NSDP): The NSDP initiated in 1996 as a scheme of Special Central Assistance for slum improvement, has been providing additional central assistance to state governments to provide water supply and sanitation among other facilities to the slums.

vi) VAMBAY (Valmiki-Ambedkar Awas Yojona): This scheme has been launched in 2001-02 to provide shelter or upgrade the existing shelter of the people living below poverty line in urban slums implemented in partnership with state governments who will set up the implementation machinery, arrange for land where required and for the credit component for housing. The state funds under the scheme will be in proportion to their slum population.

vii) Nehru Rozgar Yojana (NRY): In order to alleviate the conditions of urban poor, a Centrally Sponsored Programme - Nehru Rozgar Yojana – was launched at the end of the Seventh Five Year Plan (October 1989) with the objective of providing employment to the urban unemployed and underemployed poor. The Central Government indicated its overall contribution while the essential task of identifying, earmarking and

coordinating the relevant sectoral inputs was undertaken by the State Governments. The NRY consisted of three schemes namely (i) the Scheme of Urban Micro Enterprises (SUME); (ii) the Scheme of Urban Wage Employment (SUWE); and (iii) the Scheme of Housing and Shelter Upgradation (SHASU). During the Eighth Plan, 92% of the available funds

were utilized but for the shortfall in the number of dwelling units upgraded/in progress under SHASU, the targets have been achieved under all the other schemes. viii)Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP): The UBSP Programme was implemented as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme during the Eighth Five Year Plan with the specific objectives of effective achievement of the social sector goals; community organization, mobilization and empowerment; and convergence through sustainable support system. The expenditure on the Urban Development Plans,Policies and Programmes Programme was being shared on a 60:40 basis between the Central and the State Governments and UTs (with legislatures). Further, the per capita expenditure on any slum pocket is Rs.75/- in the first year and Rs.50/- from the second year onwards after the basic infrastructure is developed.

ix) Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PM IUPEP): Recognizing the seriousness and complexity of urban poverty problems, especially in the small towns, the PMI UPEP was launched in November, 1995 applicable to all Class II urban agglomerations with a population ranging between 50,000 and one lakh subject to the condition that elections to local bodies have been held.

x) The Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY): The Nehru Rojgar Yojna (NRY) and Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMI UPEP) were two important direct poverty alleviation programmes in urban areas. Although their thrust was on employment and income generation for urban poor, these had components for provision of basic services as well. PMI UPEP was launched in the year 1995-96 with the objectives of employment generation, shelter upgradation, social development and community empowerment. It may, however, be noted that during 1997, the three programmes of UBSP, NRY and PMIUPEP have been merged into a single employment generation programme called Swarna

Jayanti Shahari Rojgar Yojona (SJSRY).

The SJSRY is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme applicable to all the urban areas with expenditure to be shared in ratio 75:25 between the Centre and States/UTs. The programme has two sub-schemes namely: (a) Urban Self – Employment Programme and (b) Urban Wage Employment Programme.

The self-employment and wage employment components of the NRY and PMIUPEP have been re-organised under this single programme. The shelter upgradation components of both NRY and PMIUPEP have been merged with the National Slum Development Programme.

The SJSRY seeks to provide gainful employment to the urban unemployed or underemployed poor by encouraging the setting up of self-employment

ventures or provision of wage employment. This programme is based on the creation of suitable community structures on the UBSP pattern and delivery of inputs under this programme was devised through urban local bodies and similar community institutional structures and rests on the foundation of community empowerment. Community organisations like Neighbourhood Groups (NHGs), Neighbourhood Committees (NHCs) and Community Development Societies (CDSs) have been set up in the target areas based on the UBSP pattern. The CDSs is the focal point for purposes of identification of beneficiaries, preparation of applications, monitoring of recovery and generally providing whatever other support is necessary to the programme. The CDSs identifies viable projects suitable for that particular area.

12.2 FIVE YEAR PLANS AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

The available literature on the current planning practices in the country indicates that planning objectives, policies and strategies at national level, are basically formalized in the Five Year Plans. According to Item 20 of the Concurrent List in the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution of India, social and economic planning is a joint responsibility of the central and state governments. However, land being a state subject, the role of state governments becomes more pronounced in the implementation process.

At the state level, the system of economic planning is similar to the one at the national level. Spatial or physical planning is generally limited to a few selected urban settlements. The urban planning system includes the master plan, detailed further through zonal plans. In some states, provision of an interim general plan is also available. Generally the state Town and Country Planning Department/ Directorate is responsible for preparation of master/development plans of urban settlements under the respective state Regional and Town Planning Act. In Maharashtra, and Gujarat, the development plans of urban centers are prepared by state Town Planning and Valuation Departments, for, and on behalf of the municipalities. The development authorities, in some states, perform the planning function also. Private sector town planning consultancy firms are also engaged by various organizations to prepare development plan of state capitals, new towns and other towns. The implementation of these plans is generally through development authorities and special function boards/undertakings.

12.3 MADRAS URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS (MUDP) I & II

The term "SSS" is normally used to cover a variety of projects in which land is developed primarily for the benefit of lower income groups. The basic objective ofthis project is to provide low income families with the land and public utility components of the housing package. A variety of technical and financial assistance, enable them to use self-help to build, and progressively improve their dwellings. The following are provided in the sites and services by housing authorities in different parts ofthe world: (1) pegged out lots, unpaved roads and paths common water taps and pit latrine. (2) as above but

main services water connections cover each lot. (3) as same as (2) but with paved roads and foot paths (4) paved roads, foot paths, main service connections and a sanitary care. (5) any of the above with more or in some cases with a partly finished house including roof covering (World Bank 1977, Kalaidasan 1982).

Objectives

The most important factor in minimising subsidies is, designing the programmes according to the paying capacity of the target population. For example, individual electricity connection may be optional, and a core sanitary unit, may be left to be constructed by the beneficiary himself. High rates of repayment defaults, plot resales and high subsidies, all indicate a mis-match between the target population's ability to pay, and project design. Some understanding on the capacity of the target population to pay for a developed plot, can be gained by looking at the amounts low income households are presently spending on housing. So far as developing countries are concerned, the lower income household's ability to pay range from 3 to 15 per cent of their monthly income. The sites and services projects are located far from employment centres because oflow cost ofland, otherwise it will be financially disastrous for the occupants. The inhabitants must bear the extra cost of transportation to the work area and the extra cost of goods purchased locally and both of them appear to rise in direct proportion to the distance of the project from the city centres. Either through employment generation or in terms of equity benefits to residents, their economic development can be improved. Equity benefits are by far the greater, though they represent a potential danger. While net gains can be realised from the sale ofthe property, plot transferto higherincome families undermine the purpose of the project. On the other hand, income gained from room rental should not be discouraged since it helps to support the occupants and is often ploughed back into physical improvement ofthe site. Rentals can also meet part of the demand for cheap unsubsidized accommodation to the recent migrants in need of employment. For this and many other reasons a SSS area should be accessible to the very poor with the minimum services even though opportunities are made for betterment of families to improve their standards, perhaps by paying for their own water connection and so on

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the Concept of Community Development Programme ?

Write the meaning of SJSRY ?

MADRAS URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

1. One of the important objectives of the project was to redirect a significant part of public investments in the key sectors of housing, employment, social support services, water supply and transport, to directly benefit the low-income population of the metropolitan area.

2. The second major objective of the project was to ensure full cost recovery for replicability of the project and mobilization of local resources to cover the additional expenditure required for the maintenance of the assets created under the project, and to expand the services to meet the population growth in the area.

3. The third major objective was to develop the capabilities of the Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA) and other agenciesinvolved in urban development to formulate and execute similar projects on a continuing basis. Under this, CMDA was expected to propose future development programmes including capital budgeting for them. The concerned sectoral agency would acquire expertise and skill for preparing detailed proposals and on this behalf, CMDA would offer guidelines to agencies and would, review all proposals for their economic and financial viability and for their consistency with the development objective as identified in its strategy plan.

MADRAS URBAN DEVELOPMENTPROJECT - II

Local urban services which act as a link to a larger array of government and private services such as schools, small businesses, markets, shops, police and fire protection, religious, cultural and social welfare centres such as clinics, employment agencies and day care of kindergarten schools.

MUDP-II was planned to provide 18267 shelter units at an estimated cost of Rs.384.10 million over an extent of 291 ha. About 70% of shelter units are meant to house EWS people along with necessary physical facilities, social facilities, basic amenities provided in the schemes. It has been decided by the planning authority to follow the same standards of MUDP I in implementing the programmes under MUDP II.

(i) Advanced sale of prime land to generate resources for development, (ii) Allotment ofsites sufficiently in advance to ensure early settlement, (iii) Streamlining of procedures in respect of execution of lease-cum-sale agreement, handing over of site, issue of planning permission, issue of cash and material loans etc. again to help occupation of site, (iv) Provision for maintenance of roads and services during the construction and occupation period to ensure quick transfer ofmaintenance functions to local body, (v) It is proposed to include a percentage ofunits for rehabilitation of slum dwellers from objectionable slums, on easier terms, (vi) Adopting low cost sanitation methods in preference to underground sewerage system in several of the sites.

TAMIL NADU URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

1. Besides Madras for which a well conceived Urban Development Programme is under implementation, Madurai, Coimbatore, Tiruchirapalli and

NOTES

Salem need the most urgent attention as they are the immediate next order of big towns and growth poles considering the need of basic services in these centres.

2. Population studies indicate that Madurai, Coimbatore, Tiruchirapalli and Salem Planning Areas are expected to have a population of 2.27, 1.61, 1.33 and 1.07 million respectively by the turn ofthe century. All the four cities have developed as focus of trade and commerce, Centres of Textile Mills and Engineering Industries besides beingimportantseats ofadministration, higher and technological education.

3. The four cities are geographically, centrally located and equi-distantfrom one another and have a strong relationship with the surrounding hinterland, and are served by a good net work both by broad and metre gauge lines of the Southern Railways. They are also on the domestic airline map.

4. Administratively also, these cities are geared to take up the Urban Development Programmes, having benefitted under the centrally sponsored and state integrated urban development programmes in the fifth and sixth five year plans.

5. To summarise, these cities have been selected for inclusion in the Tamil Nadu Urban Development project because of i) Advantageous geographic location vis-a-vis Madras and other Urban Centres and strong relationship with surrounding hinterland.

ii) A fairly developed level of infrastructure including social infrastructure.

iii) A strong economic base which has potential for increasing employment and incomes.

iv) The level of affordability for shelter and other services is comparatively higher.

v) Being ‘near million cities’ and having a long tradition of municipal administration they are equipped to absorb investments through better administrative and technical capabilities.

vi) The institutions that will implement such projects are Tamil Nadu Housing Board, Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board, Department of Highways and Rural Works, Public Works Department and they have all experience in the implementation of MUDP, and have acquired the proper orientation for undertaking such projects.

In TNUDP (World Bank 1988) project, 54 per cent of total investment went to shelter programme, whereas it is 37 per cent for MUDP I and 62 per cent for MUDP II. For transport sector 34 per cent of the total cost is allocated and for MUDP I and II it is 35 per cent and 32 per cent respectively. 11 per cent of investment goes to municipal services, water supply and drainage. In MUDP I it is 21 per cent and in MUDP II it is only 3 per cent. Investment towards technical assistance is maintained almost at the same level in all urban development projects. It is 1.6 per cent under TNUDP, 1 per cent for MUDP I

and 2 per cent for MUDP II.

12 4 LETS SUM UP

This Unit has presented you an overview of urban development policies and programmes. Here, we have discussed the types, structure, functions and resources of urban local bodies. An attempt has also been made to emphasis' the importance and strategies of disaster management in urban areas. Further, we have highlighted various on-going efforts in respect of urban reforms in India. Urban development programmes with a focus on reduction and alleviation of poverty, has been one of the objectives of five-year plans in the country since the beginning of the planned era. This was, however, brought into the core of planning exercise only during the Fifth Five Year Plan. In order to cope with massive problems that have emerged as a result of rapid urban growth, it has become imperative to draw up a coherent urbanization policy/strategy to implement projects in select cities on mission mode. The need for the mission also rose in order to harness the potential of reforms in urban infrastructure, for National Level Reform-linked Investments, for sustainable infrastructure development and efficiency enhancements. The JNNURM is the outcome of the mission strategy and is in vogue since 2005 for fastening the process of urban development.

12. 5 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the Concept of Community Development Programme ?
2. Write the meaning of SJSRY ?

12.6 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Urban development programmes with a focus on reduction and alleviation of poverty, has been one of the objectives of five-year plans in the country since the beginning of the planned era. This was, however, brought into the core of planning exercise only during the Fifth Year Plan

2. The SJSRY is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme applicable to all the urban areas with expenditure to be shared in ratio 75:25 between the Centre and States/UTs. The programme has two sub-schemes namely: (a) Urban Self –Employment Programme and (b) Urban Wage Employment Programme.

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BLOCK V: TAMIL NADU URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT, TAMIL NADU SLUM AREA ACT 1971

UNIT XIII TAMIL NADU URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT (TNUDP); URBAN BASIC SERVICES PROGRAMMES (UBSP), NEHRU ROZGAR YOJANA (NRY), ETC

Structure

13.0 INTRODUCTION

The problem of providing gainful and quality employment to the new entrants to the job market has been a major challenge for India. With improving standards of health, nutrition and education, a large number of youth are entering the job market. The unemployment rate in India has increased significantly over the past 10 years and the number of unemployed persons was estimated to be about 35 million in 2002. About 60% of them are educated and nearly three fourths live in the rural areas. Another recent trend, following the 1990s, is the near stagnant growth of employment in the organised sector and negative growth in the public sector. As a consequence, it is now pressing for the country to create gainful job opportunities for all. Denying access to employment to a major portion of the workforce or absence of employment opportunities will only deprive our youth of economic freedom. In fact, this is the single biggest problem that our planners, political parties and all right thinking individuals in the country are facing in this century. This unit aims to acquaint you with the Prime Minister’s Rozgar Yojana, (PMRY)—a popular selfemployment scheme.

13.1TAMIL NADU URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT (TNUDP)

TNUDP III was launched on 19th October 2005. This is a repeater Project of TNUDP II and would be to consolidate the achievements of TNUDP II, thus continuing to improve urban infrastructure services in Tamil Nadu in a

sustainable manner.

The objectives of the project are as follows:

To develop Tamil Nadu Urban Development Fund (TNUDF) as a financial intermediary to provide financing for infrastructure to ULB on a sustainable basis.

To strengthen urban reforms and consolidate the achievements under TNUDP-II in institutional strengthening and capacity building

To provide a grant to the Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA) to take up traffic and transportation sub-projects like road widening, ROBs and RUBs in the CMDA area.

COMPONENTS OF THE PROJECT

The Project consists of two components, an Institutional Development component (IDC) and an Urban Investment component. The IDC provides the Technical Assistance (TA) and training needed to build capacity to further the devolution process.

13.2 URBAN BASIC SERVICES PROGRAMMES (UBSP)

Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP): The UBSP Programme was implemented as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme during the Eighth Five Year Plan with the specific objectives of effective achievement of the social sector goals; community organization, mobilization and empowerment; and convergence through sustainable support system. The expenditure on the Urban Development Plans, Policies and Programmes Programme was being shared on a 60:40 basis between the Central and the State Governments and UTs (with legislatures). Further, the per capita expenditure on any slum pocket is Rs.75/- in the first year and Rs.50/- from the second year onwards after the basic infrastructure is developed.

During the recent past, the policy planners in India have been paying considerable attention towards designing more effective social safety nets and revamping the existing measures, stemming out of growing recognition to the burgeoning informal sector and its resultant adverse implications on labour standards and social security systems, Of late, issues like targeting, proper identification, expansion of coverage as well as designing of efficient delivery mechanisms received more attention. Along side these aspects, mounting fiscal deficit scenarios forced the Central and State Governments to seek alternative approaches to devise more cost-effective and targeted interventions and obtain enhanced participation of and contributions from other stakeholders, such as the employers and social/ community actors (including the targeted beneficiaries themselves).

i) Food Security Initiatives: Since mid 1990s, a major area of intervention was in terms of targeting and strengthening the food based social security

systems. In 1995, a major scheme on providing mid-day meals was launched through which some amount of cooked food was ensured per day to the children of indigent families. This measure not only acted as a means of

nutritional support to the families of unorganised sector labour, but also provided an incentive for school enrolment of their children. In 1997, the PDS framework prevalent in the country was massively overhauled and a revamped and targeted system (TPDS) was launched, with a progressive and discriminatory pricing mechanism, through which a higher share of overall food subsidy was earmarked to those families below poverty line.

These efforts, of streamlining the benefits to the disadvantaged and needy segments of the society, were further supplemented with the introduction of two more programmes in 2000, namely Annapurna Scheme and Antyodaya Anna Scheme. While the former aimed at providing some food relief to the elderly in the impoverished families, the latter was objected to abate hunger among poorest of the poor.

The next remarkable step was the introduction of the Community Grain Bank Scheme, which though launched on an experimental basis in select tribal regions, was generally hailed as an effective and innovative approach to ensure community involvement in the implementation of social security measures.. State governments of different states and also many NGOs are running many community supported welfare programmes for the workers of the informal sector particularly in rural areas.ii) Social Insurance and Pension Measures: In the social insurance sector also, the recent past witnessed a remarkable upsurge with the introduction anumber of new schemes.

A major and universal of social insurance scheme (Janshree Bima Yojana) was launched in 2000, through the Life Insurance Corporation of India (LIC).

The implementation of the scheme, which is currently functional and expanding, is designed with the help of some local level nodal agencies,

which could be panchayats (local self governments), non-governmental organizations and self-help groups (SHGs) or any other institutionalized arrangements. Another scheme launched in collaboration with LIC in 2001, Krishi Samajik Suraksha Yojana, was aimed at providing some social insurance benefits to the farm workers. However, due to inadequate resources, the scheme was closed later in 2004. Yet another LIC aided scheme was the Varishta Pension Bima launched in 2003, which is being fully financed by the investments of the beneficiaries. Subsequently, in 2004, a community based Universal Health Insurance Scheme was also launched by the public sector general insurance companies of the country, which aimed at providing some reimbursement of medical expenses; life-cum-accident insurance; and compensation on jobs loss to the families below poverty line. Some of the other social security initiatives introduced by the Government of India, in recent past, include: Handloom Weavers' Comprehensive Welfare Schemes, Handicraft Artisans Comprehensive Welfare Scheme, Pension to Mastercraft persons, National Scheme for Welfare of Fishermen and Training and Extension, Aam Admi Bima Yojana and Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana. In 2004, Government also launched a Comprehensive Social Security Scheme for the Unorganized Sector Workers, as a follow up to the recommendations of the

Second National Commission on Labour (2002).

iii) Legislative Interventions and Initiatives: There have been some commendable legislative initiatives in the recent past that have bearings on the welfare of unorganized sector workers. In 1996, two umbrella legislations towards regulating the conditions of work and provision of a measure of social security to the group of construction workers, which constitutes one of the largest segments of workers in the unorganized sector – were passed by the Parliament of India.

On the basis of these legislations [The Building and other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1996 and The Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Cess Act, 1996],various states are expected to enact state level legislations. Subsequently, the Government notified the Building and Other Construction Workers (ECS) Central Rules, 1998, which stipulated several social security benefits to the construction workers including accident relief, old age pension, housing loans, payment of insurance premium, payment towards educational expenses of children, medical and maternity benefits. Following these Acts, various state governments are currently in the process of enacting their own legislations. So far, six states have enacted such legislations and functioning of the new schemes under these legislations have been attaining momentum in states like Kerala and Tamil Nadu.

The Second National Commission on Labour (NCL), constituted by the Government in 1999 dealt with the social security concerns of unorganized sector in a detailed manner. One of the six special study groups constituted by the commission was on social security and in its final report submitted in 2002, the Commission provided detailed recommendations towards strengthening the social security system in the country. Further, the Ministry also prepared an Unorganised Sector Workers Bill, 2004, which contained measures relating to both social security and conditions of work in the informal sector.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer

1. Write the meaning of Urban Basic Services ?

Write short notes on NRY ?

13.3 NEHRU ROZGAR YOJANA (NRY), ETC

OBJECTIVES OF JRY

Jawahar Rojgar Yojana was started with a view to expand the coverage of

wage employment opportunities to all villages and to achieve the objective of providing employment to all wage seekers in close proximity to their villages. Accordingly, the responsibility to implement the programme was given to the Gram Panchayats. The primary objective of JRY was to generate additional gainful employment for the unemployed and the underemployed in rural areas.

The secondary objectives of JRY were: (a) to create productive community assets for direct and continuing benefits to the poor and strengthening rural economic and social infrastructure which would lead to rapid growth of rural economy and as a result improve the income levels of the poor and (b) to bring about improvements in the overall quality of life in rural areas.

SALIENT FEATURES OF JRY

We know that JRY came into being after the merger of NREP and RLEGP, the two wage employment programmes, and its objective is also the same, but there are some differences in the process of its planning and implementation. The main features of the programme are as follows:

• Expenditure for the programme was shared by the Centre and states on 80:20 basis.

Poverty Alleviation Programmes – A Retrospect

• DRDA/Zilla Parishad were m

ade responsible for implementation at the district level and gram panchayats at the village level. The funds were directly released to the DRDA/ZP.

• Six per cent of the total JRY funds were earmarked for Indira Awas Yojana (IAY). Of the remaining, 20% were to be retained at the district level DRDA ZP) for inter-block/ inter-district projects and 80% to be distributed to gram panchayats.

• The works were to be executed by the village people and employment of contractors was totally banned as in the case of NREP and RLEGP.

• Preference was given to SCs and STs.

• Employment opportunities for women were reserved up to 30 per cent.

• Food-grains as part of the wages could be provided at subsidized rates.

• Non-wage component or material component was not allowed to exceed 50% of the total project cost.

• Up to a maximum of 5% of the annual allocation was allowed to meet administrative expenditure and 1/5 of it could be spent on training of the officials/ non-officials involved in the implementation of JRY.

• Up to 10% of the total allocation of DRDA/ZP and gram panchayats was meant for maintenance of the assets created under earlier programmes (NREP/RLEGP) and JRY.

13.4 LETS SUM UP

Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) was essentially a carry forward of the earlier wage employment programmes like the Crash Rural Employment Programme (CREP), the Pilot Rural Employment Programme (PIREP) and the Food For Work (FFW) programme of the 1970s and NREP, RLEGP of the 1980s. Initially most of these wage employment programmes were implemented in isolation and had no practical links with any other rural development programme. Later on, however, NREP and RLEGP were linked to various MNP activities like social formats for producing fuel wood and fodder, rural roads, rural housing, etc. Subsequently, the process of wage employment under JRY took a concrete shape to support various poverty alleviation programmes mainly to provide activity and group specific infrastructure and assets to support the income generating activities of the beneficiaries under various other programmes. Indira Awas Yojana for providing fully subsidized dwelling units to the SCs/STs and the very poor of the other categories, irrigation wells under million wells schemes and projects aiming at continuing flow of income for the poor under IJRY were the specific features of JRY, besides generating wage employment for millions of poor people in the country. The programme also helped in the construction of community assets like Panchayat Ghars, Common Work sheds, Schools and Anganwadi buildings, etc. Now, JRY and EAS have been amalgamated into a single programme called Sampoorna Gramin Rojgar Yojana (SGRY), which has been designed to support the development of infrastructure for basic services and natural and community resources to provide more opportunities for rural livelihoods and also generate more wage employment.

13.5 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Urban Basic Services ?
2. Write short note on NRY ?

13.6 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP): The UBSP Programme was implemented as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme during the Eighth Five Year Plan with the specific objectives of effective achievement of the social sector goals; community organization, mobilization and empowerment; and convergence through sustainable support system.

2. Jawahar Rojgar Yojana was started with a view to expand the coverage of wage employment opportunities to all villages and to achieve the objective of providing employment to all wage seekers in close proximity to their villages. Accordingly, the responsibility to implement the programme was given to the Gram Panchayats. The primary objective of JRY was to generate additional gainful employment for the unemployed and the underemployed in rural areas.

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UNIT XIV TAMIL NADU SLUM AREA (CLEARANCE AND IMPROVEMENT) ACT 1971, AND PROBLEMS IN IMPLEMENTATION OF URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES; ROLE OF DEVELOPMENT WORKER – APPLICATION OF SOCIAL WORK METHODS IN URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Structure

14.0 INTRODUCTION

We have discussed the issues and challenges related to urban development in the preceding Unit. But, the urban development issues and challenges can be effectively addressed only through propzr policies and programmes of urban development. In Intlia, the Ministry of Urban Development is responsible for formulating policies, suppofiing and monitoring programmes and coordinating the activities of various Central Ministries, State Governments and other nodal authorities in so far as they relate to Urban development in the country. Hence, in the present Unit we attempt to present to ! OJ a broad picture of the policies and programmes of urban development and their relevance to addressing of the issues and challenges of urban development in India.

14.1 TAMIL NADU SLUM AREA (CLEARANCE AND IMPROVEMENT) ACT 1971

Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board was established in September 1970 and has been implementing various Housing, Slum Development and Rehabilitation

and Resettlement programmes to ameliorate the living conditions of the slum families in Tamil Nadu. The Board initially started its activities in Chennai and its activities were gradually extended to other urban areas of Tamil Nadu since 1984 onwards in phased manner.

The motto of Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board is "GOD WE SHALL SEE IN THE SMILE OF THE POOR". The Board has been implementing various programmes like In-situ tenemental schemes, In-situ plotted and infrastructure development and Rehabilitation and Resettlement schemes to improve the environs of the slums and the living standards of the urban slum families to achieve the Slum Free Cities Vision before 2023.

TAMIL NADU SLUM AREA (CLEARANCE AND IMPROVEMENT) ACT 1971

An Act to provide for the improvement and clearance of slums in the State of Tamil Nadu.

WHEREAS the number of slums in certain areas in the State of Tamil Nadu is on the increase and the slums are likely to become a source of danger to public health and sanitation of the said area.

AND WHEREAS under the existing law, it has not been possible effectively to arrest the growth of slums, to eliminate congestion and to prov ide for certain basic needs such as streets, water -supply and drainage in slums and to clear slums which are unfit for human habitation.

AND WHEREAS to obviate this difficulty, it is expedient to provide for the removal of un-hygenic and insanitary conditions prevailing in slums, for better accommodation and improved living conditions for slum dwellers, for the promotion of public health generally nd for the acquisition of land for the purpose of improving or developing slum areas, re - developing slum clearance areas and rehabilitating slum dwellers:

AND WHEREAS it is Directive principle of State Policy embodied in the constitution that the State should regard the improvement of public health as among its primary duties. Be it enacted by the legislature of the State of Tamil Nadu in the Twenty –second ear of the Republic of India as follows:

PRELIMINARY

1. Short title, extent and commencement:- This Act may be called Tamil Nadu Slum Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1971.

2. It extends to the whole of Tamil Nadu.

3. It should come into force on such date as the Government may, by notification, appoint and different dates may be appointed for different areas and for different provisions of this Act:

Provided that any reference in any such provision to the commencement of this Act shall be construed as a reference to the coming into force of that provision.

2. Definitions. - In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires. -

(a) "Board" means the Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board, established under section 34;

(b) “Building” includes a house, out-house, stable, latrine, shed, hut, wall and any other such structure, whether or masonry, bricks, wood, mud, metal or any other materials whatsoever, but does not include part or machinery comprised in a building;

(c) “Court” means -

(i) in the city of Madras, the Madras City Civil Court;

(ii) elsewhere, the Subordinate Judge’s Court having jurisdiction and if there is not such Subordinate Judge’s Court, the District Court having jurisdiction;

(d) “erection” in relation to a building includes extension, alteration or re-erection;

(e) “Government” means the State Government;

(f) “land” includes building and benefits to arise out of land and things attached to the earth or permanently fastened to anything attac hed to the earth or permanently fastened to anything attached to the earth;

(g) “occupier” includes-

(i) any person who for the time being is paying or is liable to pay to the owner the rent or any portion of the rent of the land or building in respect of which such rent is paid or is payable;

(ii) an owner in occupation of, or otherwise using his land or building;

(iii) a rent-free tenant of any land or building;

(iv) a licensee in occupation of any land or building; and

(v) any person who is liable to pay to the owner damages for the use and occupation of any land or buildings;

(h) “owner” includes any person, who is receiving or is entitled to receive the rent of any land or building whether on his own account or on behalf and others or as an agent, trustee, executor, administrator, receiver or guardian or who would so receive the rent or be entitled to receive the rent, if the land or building were let to a tenant;

(i) “person interested” in relation to any land or building, includes any personclaiming, or entitled to claim, an interest in the compensation payable on account of the acquistion of that land or building under this Act;

(j) “prescribed authority” means any authority or person authorized by the Government in this regard, by notification;

(k) “slum area” means any area declared to be a slum area under sub -section (1) ofsection 3; (1) of section 3;

(l) “slum clearance area” means any slum area declared to be a slum clearance area under section 11;

(m) “State Housing Board” means the Tamil Nadu State Housing Board constituted under the Tamil Nadu State Housing Board Act, 1961 Tamil Nadu Act XVII of 1961);

(n) “work of improvement” in relation to any building in a slum area includes the execution of any one or more of the following works, namely:-

(i) necessary repairs;

(ii) structural alterations;

(iii) provision of light points, water -taps and bathing places;

(iv) construction of drains, open or covered;

(v) provision of latrines, including conversion of dry latrines into water-borne latrines;

(vi) provision of additional or improved fixtures or fittings;

(vii) opening up or paving of Court-yards;

(viii) removal of rubbish; and

(ix) any other work including the demolition of any building or any part there of which in the opinion of the pre scribed authority is necessary for executing any of the works specified above.

14.2 PROBLEMS IN IMPLEMENTATION OF URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

Urban development programmes with a focus on reduction and alleviation of poverty, has been one of the objectives of five-year plans in the country since the beginning of the planned era. This was, however, brought into the core of planning exercise only during the Fifth Year Plan. The consumption levels of different commodities were projected in this plan by taking higher growth rates for people in lower consumption brackets. Extensive research has since then been carried out to study the dimensions of poverty, its temporal trend, spatial pattern etc.

Urban Development Plans,

Policies and Programmes This led to identification of theoretical solutions for reduction of poverty and launching of programmes during the past Five Year Plans.

An analysis of the government policies and programmes and investment pattern during the fifties, sixties and seventies reveals a distinct bias for urban areas. Public sector investment in infrastructure and basic services improved the level of services in urban centers, which accentuated the rural urban disparity. These investments were concentrated mostly in the large cities that attracted private investments as well as subsidized institutional funds. This resulted in creation of employment opportunities at a higher level of productivity earnings than in rural areas, widening the gap between their income levels. This period also witnessed the creation of a number of Boards and Corporations at the state level and development authorities at the city level. Considerable funds were routed through these agencies that improved the level of services for at least a section of the urban population. Removal of poverty received attention initially in the Fifth Five Year Plan. The earlier plans did not emphasize on proper analysis of the dimension of poverty. The Fifth Plan noted that the consumption levels of the bottom 30 per cent of the country’s population remained below the minimum of Rs.40.6 per capita per month at 1972-73 prices. No distinction was, however, made between rural and urban poverty. The plan stressed poverty could be removed by promoting economic growth and through proper implementation of the national level programmes like Minimum Needs Programme. The Sixth Plan addressed the problem of poverty in a more focused manner and recognized that economic growth process by itself was not enough to tackle poverty. It noted that about 51 per cent of the rural population and 41 per cent of the urban population

were living below the poverty line in 1979-80. Specific programmes like Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns, Minimum Needs Programme, Urban Basic Services, Integrated Rural Development Programme, National Rural Development Programme (NRDP) etc. were recommended for urban and rural areas. The Sixth Plan showed a distinct bias in favour of rural poverty by implementing specific programmes. The programmes that have been launched since independence have been briefly discussed in the following section. i) Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT): The programme was launched in 1979-80 basically for developing small and medium towns partly by providing basic services to poor and also by improving their economic conditions so that the growth of metro cities could be arrested. Initially, the scope of the programme was restricted to towns with population below one hundred thousand as per the 1971 Census. It had been decided in the Eighth Plan to include cities having population of five hundred thousand as per the Census of 1991.

ii) Low Cost Sanitation Programme (LCS): The goal of providing sanitation facilities to eighty per cent of urban population was fixed in the early eighties with the announcement of the UN Decadal Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation. Accordingly, a centrally sponsored scheme was launched in 1980-81, with the objective of eliminating manual scavenging through conversion of dry latrines. It covered all the households, which have dry latrines and those having no latrines including slum and squatter settlements.

14.3 ROLE OF DEVELOPMENT WORKER

The Ministry for Public Service and Administration (2007) describes the roles of CDWs as follows:• to assist in the smooth delivery of services by identifying and removing obstacles• to strengthen the social contract between government and communities• to link communities with government services• to pass on communities' concerns and problems to government structures• to support and nurture the increased exchange of information• to improve government–community networks.The above serve to emphasise the significance of government working together with local communities. An observation can be made, based on media reports, that communities are mostly feeling that government is not communicating enough, and as such they are left behind on matters affecting them directly. In essence, CDWs are formed to bridge the gap between government and citizens in great need of services provided by it. It is a complementary structure to existing structures in municipalities.Advantages of community development workersThe former President Mbeki on 14 March during the CDWs Indaba (Summit) in Tshishonga and Mafema (2010: 574) argued that CDWP had brought in a new category of professionalism in the local government sphere and would assist and fast track service delivery. It had a structural resource budgeted for its effective and efficient operations. The CDWP was formed on the basis of the following strategic objectives and advantages:• to assist in the removal of development and service delivery

bottlenecks• to link communities with government services and relay community concerns and problems to government• to support, nurture and advocate for an organised voice for the poor• to improve government community networks (The Presidency 14 March 2008 'SA: Mbeki: Community Development Workers Indaba (Summit)' in Tshishonga and Mafema, 2010: 574).The above advantages have been summarised by the Forum for Australian Services for Survivors of Torture and Trauma (FASSTT) in Tshishonga and Mafema (2010: 575) as a process which contributes to the strength of a community by increasing its social capital, developing self-reliance through encouraging cohesive relationships and external partnerships, enhancing and harnessing community skills and resources, and promoting participation in decision-making leadership to ensure community ownership.Disadvantages of community development workersAccording to Tshishonga and Mafema (2010: 575) the disadvantages of CDWs during the stage of its formation are as follows:• The CDWP is a cumbersome programme: it is based in the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA), but is overseen by the whole municipalities as the locus of their day-to-day activities. Therefore, the CDWP was conceived without a policy direction.• Communities did not trust the programme because of new suspicion that the CDWs spy for the government, a legacy of the previous oppressive government. The South African culture is built on suspicion of top-down and state-led community development programmes as they were used during the apartheid to control people.• The role and responsibility of the CDWs are misunderstood by both local government and communities, and it often causes conflict and tension (Gray and Mubangizini 2010; Tshishonga and Mafema 2010).• The issue of programme accountability was an added challenge as councillors had an expectation that CDWs were to report directly as councillors had an expectation that CDWs were to report directly to them, thus there was confusion as to who was in charge of them. This resulted in fragmented and uncooperative relationships and networks between ward councillors and CDWs (Gray and Mubangizini 2010; Tshishonga and Mafema 2010).• The Local Government officials and Councillors felt threatened by CDWs' position and direct line communication to the COGTA. CDWs were thus treated with suspicion in case they assumed the government and councillor's roles.• The suspicions and infighting with political stalwarts of the communities placed CDWs in a precarious position where they felt exacerbated by the lack of a formal introduction of the programme, particularly to the relevant stakeholders such as government departments, the private sector and communities as targeted recipients of their services.

14.4 APPLICATION OF SOCIAL WORK METHODS IN URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Social Work Intervention in Urban Community Development

NOTES

Conscientization

Conscientization or *creating critical consciousness* is a method derived from Paulo Friere's experiences of teaching illiterate peasants to read while at the same time teaching them to "read the political and social situation in which they found themselves." This method stressed the relationship of equality and mutual respect between group members ("learners-teachers") and the facilitators ("teacher-learners"). The facilitators engaged the people in a problem-posing dialogue designed to assist them to elucidate the root causes of the problems they identified. Working in small groups, the people were assisted in exploring the interconnections between situations and to devise action plans, based on critical reflection, to help transform those situations. The levels of awareness of community development workers reflect their responses to the community situations and the attitudes and actions towards the situation. Thus, the type of assistance and their responses to poverty are dependent on the level of awareness.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: Use the space provided for your answer.

1. Tamil Nadu Slum Area (Clearance And Improvement) Act 1971.

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2. Write the meaning of Development Worker ?

The significance of Freire's method for community organizing lies in providing an effective methodological refinement through problem-posing dialogue and on the understanding of the root causes of problems and issues being addressed.

Freire's literacy method is founded on the notions of *conscientization* and *dialogue.* It involves teaching adults how to read and write in relation to the awakening of their consciousness about their social reality. Conscientization is a process of developing consciousness, but consciousness that is understood to have the power to transform reality". It is an 'awakening of consciousness', a change of mentality Involving an accurate, realistic awareness of one's locus In nature and society; the capacity to analyze critically its causes and consequences, comparing It with other situations and possibilities; and *action* of a logical sort aimed at transformation. Psychologically It entails an awareness of one's dignity.

Conscientlzation, therefore, leads to people organizing themselves to take action so as to change their social realities. The concept of conscientlzation has attracted those who believe in humanistic implications for the participation of the masses and in the necessity of a rapid restructuring of society. It rests on value assumptions of equality of all people, their right to knowledge and culture, and their right to criticise their situation and act upon it. It also implies having a faith in the capacity of all people, including the illiterate, to engage in critical dialogue. Dialogue is the means of achieving conscientlzation. Conscientlzation requires that an individual change his or her attitudes, perception or beliefs. In other words, individuals must not accept that social reality cannot be questioned and changed.

Freire believed that once a person perceived and understood a challenge and recognised the possibilities of a response, that person will act and the nature of his or her action will correspond to the nature of his or her understanding. Hence, critical understanding of situations leads to critical action. Freire's literacy method offered the illiterate people the means by which they could replace their *passive* perception of their reality by that which was *critical* so that they could do something about those situations. Freire felt that before teaching the illiterate adult to read, he or she should be helped to overcome his or her passive understanding and develop an increasing critical understanding of his or her reality. Freire proposed that such conscientization could be achieved through an active dialogical and critical pedagogy, changing the learning content so that it comes from the learner's experiences or concrete social realities, and the use of problem codification. He argued that to acquire literacy was more than just being mechanically competent in reading and writing skills but also to be competent in these skills in terms of consciousness. Hence, the educator's role is to enter into dialogue with the illiterate about concrete situations and give him or her the means with which he or she can teach himself or herself to read and write. This kind of teaching is not imposed from the top but takes place in a shared investigation or in a problem-raising situation between educator and educatee. The emphasis is on the critical analysis and the creativity of the educatee in order to discourage passive behaviour of the educatee or learners.

Community Organizing

Community organizing is a long-term approach where the people affected by an issue are supported in identifying problems and taking action to achieve solutions. The organizer challenges those he or she works with to change the way things are—it is a means of achieving social change through collective action by changing the balance of power. The tactics and strategies employed by the organizer are similar to the processes of leadership including timing the issue, deliberate planning, getting the attention of the populace, framing the issue in terms of the desired solution, and shaping the terms of the decision-making process.

Community organizing helps to bring out many voices to add collective power and strength to an issue. Community organizing is a key part of an overall

strategy to make changes in a community that are widely felt, and that reflect the wishes of the people who are directly affected by alcohol-related community problems. This requires the organizer to not only listen and be responsive to the community, but also to help community residents develop the skills necessary to address their own issues in an ongoing way.At the heart of community organizing are inclusion, ownership, relationship building and leadership development.

Community organizing looks at ***collective*** solutions — large numbers of people who engage in solutions that impact even more people. These people usually live in the same neighborhood, town or block. Many traditional agency responses look at ***individual*** solutions. Agencies tend to focus on the individual as a means to solve public health problems.

Effective community organizing involves the following process:

Assess the community: It's extremely important to know the community that one will be working in and the history of the issue one will address. Allow two to three months to become familiar with the community, its history, make-up, demographics, geography and political leadership. Continue to learn about the community by going and interacting with individuals. This will help in learning about the concerns of the community and develop personal relationships.

Develop an action plan: Work with the team to develop an Action Plan. What problems has the group identified? What policies would address that problem? What is the decision-making body one needs to impact? What other steps will the team need to take to change policy? Break the work down into manageable steps and tasks. Hold a meeting to discuss plan of action and include a timeline for when things will happen and identify who is responsible. It should be realistic, feasible, and flexible.

Issues for an action team that works against alcohol addiction might include:

- Alcohol billboards near school
- Easy for youth to get alcohol at a community festival
- Local store sells to youth
- Youth-targeted alcohol displays at local market
- Abandoned building in area is a hangout where youth drink

Mobilize to action: Building support base is a necessary part of Action Plan. While the leadership group will guide work, more people are needed to enact or change policy. Tasks one has to consider:

- Identify potential supporters by going door-to-door
- Build a base of support in the community
- Determine constituents and likely allies

- Contact constituents and meet with key members
- Make presentations
- Identify elected officials who you think will be supportive
- Solicit advice of supportive politicians for more political contacts
- Ask people to get involved — give them specific tasks

Once the group has identified its policy goals the responsibility of the organizer is to keep the momentum of the group moving forward. To do this one should:

- Break large jobs into small tasks
- Get and keep your team members engaged, informed, involved, and in the spotlight
- Be responsive and reliable — get people what they need to complete their tasks
- Keep group focused and on track
- Don't let opponents get your group off message or task

Implement: Once the team manages to influence a policy or achieve a goal, the group will need to decide how it maintains the change and ensures that the desired results are achieved. For example, policy changes cannot be successful at reducing youth access to alcohol if those policies don't include enforcement provisions. After a policy is passed, the group will want to be sure that it is enforced and accomplishes what was intended. Likewise, the group will have to decide what its future will be once goal is attained.

Evaluate: It is important to carefully review progress during the campaign to ensure staying on track, as well as to evaluate the campaign after it has ended to see what went right or wrong and learn lessons for the future. During the campaign, make sure you are continuing to make progress toward your goals. Check up on the process, to make sure the group is effectively working together. Examples of evaluation questions to ask leaders and other stakeholders in your campaign might include:

- Is the campaign making a difference? How?
- Are we making progress toward our goal?
- What factors are most important in achieving the goals of the campaign?
- What are the biggest challenges or obstacles for the campaign?

After the action plan has been implemented and the campaign is "over," evaluate:

- What has been accomplished?
- What still needs to be done?
- What was done well?
- What could have been done better?

Community Mobilization

Community mobilization engages all sectors of the population in a community-wide effort to address a health, social, or environmental issue. It brings together policy makers and opinion leaders, local, state, and federal governments, professional groups, religious groups, businesses, and individual community members. Community mobilization empowers individuals and groups to take some kind of action to facilitate change.

Part of the process includes mobilizing necessary resources, disseminating information, generating support, and fostering cooperation across public and private sectors in the community. Anyone can initiate a community mobilization effort — for example in an AIDS prevention programme, the STD staff of local or state health departments, CBOs, or concerned physicians and other health professionals. All it takes is a person or a group to start the process and bring others into it.

The most significant benefit from community mobilization is doing something to help address an issue impacting their community to save valuable resources. By getting involved, community- and faith-based organizations, health care professionals, and policy makers will jointly take actions that should result in the elimination of problems in their community. Community mobilization can position your organization as a leader in the community, possibly bringing in new resources. It can infuse new energy into an issue through community buy-in and support. Expand the base of community support for an issue or organization. Help a community overcome denial of a health issue. Promote local ownership and decision-making about a health issue. Encourage collaboration between individuals and organizations. Limit competition and redundancy of services and outreach efforts. Provide a focus for prevention planning and implementation efforts. Create public presence and pressure to change laws, polices, and practices — progress that could not be made by just one individual or organization. Bring new community volunteers together (because of increased visibility). Increase cross-sector collaboration and shared resources. Increase access to funding opportunities for organizations and promote long-term, organizational commitment to social and health-related issues.

1 Conducting a Community Assessment.

You will need to conduct a Community Assessment to learn where your community currently stands in regard to syphilis elimination. (Who is currently involved, what has been accomplished, and what has not happened, opportunities, barriers, gaps, etc.)

2 Involving the right people.

Do not try to conduct a community-wide campaign just through one of your department. You will want to form a community coalition of health professionals, CBOs and FBOs (and their leaders), community activists and others who have an interest in the issue. Make sure that you encourage open communication.

3 Selecting a strong leader.

Appropriate leadership is key to the success of your community mobilization effort. Whether it is a person in the health department or a member of your community coalition, this leader needs to be creative and have the ability to bring together people who have different perspectives and vested interests to support the coalition's vision. This leader needs to become an agent of change who is passionate about the issue and able to organize members of your coalition and its target audiences into change agents.

4 Defining goals and strategies.

Your goals help to define what must be accomplished to achieve your vision. Strategies identify the actions you will take to meet your goals. Set goals that you think can be achieved and choose strategies that you think can be implemented with the resources (funding, manpower, equipment) you have or believe you can obtain.

5 Developing ways to regularly measure progress.

Creating change takes time. Tracking your achievements will help you maintain the momentum necessary for success. Early in your mobilization planning process, identify your short- and long-term goals, as well as how and when you will measure when you have achieved those goals.

Conflict Resolution

Conflict means an adversarial relationship or a disagreement between two or more persons, between groups, regions or even nation emanating from different perceptions and interests. Such conflict may be intra-personal as result of internal disagreement within a person. When one speaks of a conflict, it is normally taken to mean chaos, wars or mutual suspicion or strained relations, competition, hatred and many other associated ills. It is incorrect to normally regard conflict as something very destructive which deserves avoidance or denouncing.

In most cases conflict is as a result of the following:

- Different perception;

- Dierent behaviors or attitudes;

- Poor distribution of national resources;

- Lack of basic human needs or their frustration;

- Different interests;

- Ideological differences based on religion or political parties.

Types of conflict

Disputes. This is a type of conflict normally encountered on a daily basis. It is usually easy to resolve this type of conflict. Examples include; not respecting time and appointments, having an argument with someone, late coming without notifying ones superior, etc. This type of conflict if not responded it can lead to social discord.

Underlying conflict. This sort of conflict happens when, one continues to push the problem under the carpet, avoiding or post pining it to the extent that it only requires an enabling event or a spark off or explode the conflict into war.

Deep rooted conflict

This type of conflict is indeed fundamental. It is based on perception and religious or ethnic beliefs. It is hard to handle or manage. Some people are even prepared to sacrifice their lives for what they consider so dear to themselves.

Levels of conflict

Intrapersonal conflict: The type of conflict that occur within a person. Examples : choice of partner, moral question or a decision to abandon a bad practice, use of time, taking a decision etc.

Interpersonal Conflict: Conflict between two or more persons over an issue.

Intragroup conflict: An example is conflict between people within the same group.

Intergroup conflict: One might cite conflicts between organizations, families, or institutions.

Intranational conflict: This means an internal conflict between small groups within the country.

International Conflict: This is conflict between two or more nations. This could be for ideological reasons, territorial claims, natural resources or other interests.

Different styles of behavior or Responses to conflict

Avoidance This happens when a person shuns away responsibility. He/she recognizes the problem, but doesn't make any effort to solve it. This attitude is always based on the understanding that conflict is always negative, thinking that trying to extricate from it may land a person into more trouble. It looks as if one has swept the problem under the carpet, postponing it due to fear. This simply implies covering up something one would like to see yet this doesn't solve the problem either. The outcome of such behavior response in face of the conflict is that, such conflict avoided will always re-surface due to that

avoidance attitude which has the potential to result in poor response. Such conflict may turn out to be a boomerang or destroy the entire society.

Collaboration This method involves mutual discussion and dialogue in order to arrive at a final decision. This requires active listening and co-operation of the other party in the conflict in finding a solution. It also requires participation and mutual understanding of both parties. When both parties are deeply convinced of their common needs or have relatively the same bargaining power.

Competition This usually happens when one party feels dominant over the other and wishes to monopolize, control and out compete the other. One party doesn't wish to pay any attention to the other and only defends his/her position. This method uses force to dominate and suppress the other party. It is being egocentric and selfish, a kind of win / lose aspect. Competition is usually used when: When negotiations and peaceful talks have hit a deadlock or one of the parties fails to accommodate the others views. It also happens when one party is unwilling to give up some interests and is always positional on whatever he wants. This kind of behavior has always got negative consequences on the social relations of the concerned parties.

Advocacy

Advocacy can be called as the act of inducing and persuading the democratic agencies to resolve various social issues. Advocacy is a Latin term. The word 'Ad' means 'in favour of' and 'Voca' is to speak.... hence, the meaning of the word 'advocacy' is to speak in favour of someone. The lawyers are also called advocates, as they stand in favour of a side or a party. In other words, advocacy is to speak for, or support someone. Advocacy is essential for helping the insignificant social elements, institutions, communities and neglected public in acquiring their rights and in making the concerned authorities aware of their issues. E.g. inadequate ration supply, diseases, especially contagious diseases etc. Advocacy informs the common people in such situations about the concerned authorities and where and how to approach them. Such an organized and collective effort is advocacy. Every nation has always tried to constitute the government policies in favour of the poor and neglected ones.

The Aims of advocacy:

- To bring the attention of the policy-makers to the issues of the oppressed ones in the society.
- To influence the making and implementation those of policies.
- To apprise the common man about the details of various policies, schemes, programmes for social welfare and the existing systems.
- To enhance the skills and outlook for proper execution of policies.
- To create a 'people-oriented' government system.
- To create more and more social advocates from the civil society.

The first stage is the identification of an issue for policy action. This stage is also referred to as agenda setting. There are an unlimited number of problems which need attention, but not all can get a place on the action agenda. Advocates decide which problem to address and attempt to get the target institution to recognize that the problem needs action.

Generally, the second stage, solution formulation, follows rapidly. Advocates and other key actors propose solutions to the problem and select one that is politically, economically, and socially feasible.

The third stage, building the political will to act on the problem and its solution, is the centerpiece of advocacy. Actions during this stage include coalition building, meeting with decision makers, awareness building and delivering effective messages.

The fourth stage, policy action, takes place when a problem is recognized, its solution is accepted and there is political will to act, all at the same time. This overlap is usually a short window of opportunity which advocates must seize. An understanding of the decision-making process and a solid advocacy strategy will increase the likelihood of creating windows of opportunity for action.

The final stage, evaluation, is often not reached, though it is important. Good advocates assess the effectiveness of their past efforts and set new goals based on their experience. Advocates and the institution that adopts the policy change should periodically evaluate the effectiveness of that change.

Capacity Building

Community capacity can be seen as the capacity of the people in communities to participate in actions based on community interests, both as individuals and through groups, organisations and networks. It is not primarily about their ability to act in their personal, family or employers' interest, which are catered for in other spheres. However, many of the same skills are involved, and people who are active in the community invariably benefit in other ways as well.

The actions people and groups take can broadly be described as Community Activity. This can be divided into three types of activity:

• Action to build social capital: building relationships, trust, shared norms and networks. It involves people taking part in community initiatives, groups and organisations, and those groups communicating with the wider population as volunteers, members and participants.

• Delivering services: these can either be autonomous services provided by communities, or specialist services provided by community or voluntary groups, controlled by contracts or service level agreements with public agencies.

• Involvement in governance: representing the interests of all local people or of particular groups in influencing decisions that affect the quality of local life.

Community capacity building is defined as: Activities, resources and support that strengthen the skills and abilities of people and community groups to take effective action and leading roles in the development of

their communities. It is helpful to see community capacity building as three main types of activity:

• Developing skills - learning and training opportunities for individuals and groups, and sharing through networks and mutual support, to develop skills, knowledge and confidence.

• Developing structures – developing the organisational structures and strengths of community groups, communities of interest and networks.

• Developing support – developing the availability of practical support to enable the development of skills and structures.

Community capacity building is normally undertaken to achieve a specific purpose, whereas the community development process provides the wider context. The key purpose of community development work is ‘collectively to bring about social change.

Nine domains are identified on capacity building. These are areas where there are opportunities for individuals and groups to mobilize themselves for greater control over their lives. Considering these domains encourages strategic planning, implementation and evaluation of programmes:

1. Improves stakeholder participation;
2. Increases problem assessment capacities;
3. Develops local leadership;
4. Builds empowering organizational structures;
5. Improves resource mobilization;
6. Strengthens links to other organisations and people;
7. Enhances stakeholder ability to "ask why";
8. Increases stakeholder control over programme management;
9. Creates an equitable relationship with outside agents.

The nine domains represent the organizational influences on the community's capacity. They link the inter-personal elements of the community with the programme's political, socio-cultural and economic context.

Implementing the Capacity Building approach

Capacity building is always a process. The approach is not a substitute for other elements of programme planning such as setting goals or objectives, but helps programme staff ask themselves at all stages whether the programme has helped to increase community capacity.

A four phases guide can be followed while implementation capacity building of communities:

hase 1: Preparation

A period of observation and discussion before assessing community capacity will allow adapting the approach to the programme participants' social and cultural requirements. For example the use of a working definition of community capacity can provide all participants with a mutual understanding of the programme. The nine operational domains can be altered at this stage if necessary.

Phase 2: Assessments

The participants assess their community’s capacity using participatory appraisal techniques, which helps to describe different levels of capacity. This throws light on each of the domains mentioned above and the stage at which the community’s lie vis-à-vis these domains. The participants during the PRA closely describe their community's present situation. In this way the participants make their own assessment for each domain by comparing their experiences and opinions.

The participants record the reasons for assessing each domain. This helps when other people make an assessment later on and also provides some observable criteria for the selection. This helps in generating the baseline about the existing resources, skills and knowledge and later on helps in assessing the success of the capacity building component of the programme.

Phase 3 Developing a strategic plan for community capacity

The assessment must be transformed into action in order to build capacity. This is achieved through strategic planning in each of the identified and prioritized domains, which consists of: discussing how to improve the present situation; developing a strategy to improve the present situation; and identifying what resources are needed. Activities are designed to guide participants through these steps.

Phase 4 Follow-up and re-assessments

The approach uses a simplified version of logical framework project planning. The participants must meet every three to six months to review their assessment and strategic plan for building community capacity.

What are areas in which capacity building is done?

The capacity building of communities increase the access of the communities to:

- Skills
- Information
- Resources – natural, financial and intellectual
- Knowledge
- Technology
- Linkages

What are tools that can be used for Capacity Building?

The tools that can be used for capacity building are:

- Intensive trainings
- Focus group workshops, seminars, discussions
- Exposure and exchange visits to successful projects

PROJECT PLANING AND IMPLEMENTATION

Projects represent the commitment of human and physical resources to produce specific outputs in a given time and budget framework. Projects vary in scale, purpose and duration. They may be initiated within a community, requiring modest inputs and producing tangible outputs within a relatively short timeframe. At the other extreme, projects may require substantial financial resources and only generate benefits in the long term. For example, the former could be an adult literacy project in a village; the latter may be the provision of universal primary education for all children of school age in a country. Whilst the former needs one trainer and a few teaching materials, the latter requires numerous schools, teachers, equipment and administration. Projects may stand-alone or be integrated into a programme, with several projects contributing to one overall goal. Despite the difference in scale and nature of projects, there are aspects of sound project management that are universal.

The phases of the project cycle can be described as follows:

During the Programming phase, the situation at national and sectoral level is analysed to identify problems, constraints and opportunities which development cooperation could address. This involves a review of socio-economic indicators, and of national and donor priorities. The purpose is to identify and agree the main objectives and sectoral priorities for development cooperation, and thus to provide a relevant and feasible programming

framework within which projects can be identified and prepared. For each of these priorities strategies will be formulated that take account of the lessons of past experience.

Á During the Identification phase, ideas for projects and other development actions are identified and screened for further study. This involves consultation with the intended beneficiaries of each action, an analysis of the problems they face, and the identification of options to address these problems. A decision can then be made on the relevance of each project idea (both to the intended beneficiaries and to the programming framework), and on which ideas should be further studied during the Formulation phase.

Â During the Formulation phase, relevant project ideas are developed into operational project plans. Beneficiaries and other stakeholders participate in the detailed specification of the project idea that is then assessed for its feasibility (whether it is likely to succeed) and sustainability (whether it is likely to generate longterm benefits for the beneficiaries). On the basis of this assessment, a decision is made on whether to draw up a formal project proposal and seek funding for the project.

Ã During the Financing phase, project proposals are examined by the funding agency, and a decision is taken on whether to fund the project. The funding agency and partner country agree the modalities of implementation and formalise these in a legal document which sets out the arrangements by which the project will be funded and implemented.

Ä During the Implementation phase, the project is mobilised and executed. This may require the tendering and award of contracts for technical assistance or works and supplies. During implementation, and in consultation with beneficiaries and stakeholders, project management assesses actual progress against planned progress to determine whether the project is on track towards achieving its objectives. If necessary the project is re-oriented to bring it back on track, or to modify some of its objectives in the light of any significant changes that may have occurred since its formulation.

Å During the Evaluation phase, the funding agency and partner country assess the project to identify what has been achieved, and to identify lessons that have been learned. Evaluation findings are used to improve the design of future projects or programmes. Although in the generic cycle the evaluation phase comes after implementation, it is common practice also to conduct a mid-term evaluation during implementation, to identify lessons that can be applied during the remaining life of the project.

The cycle represents a continuous process in which each stage provides the foundation for the next. For example, the information generated during project identification (Stage I) provides the basis for detailed project design (Stage II). Stage III reviews the information generated during the preceding two stages from several perspectives to ensure the project is viable. Stages I to III provide the foundations for a project. If they are sound, the project is more likely to succeed in subsequent stages, in terms of securing funding and competent

implementation. However, at any point in the first three stages it may be decided that it is more appropriate not to proceed with the proposed project.

14.5 LETS SUM UP

In this Unit you have gained understanding about various career options that would be available to you after successfully completing the course. The unit described the settings, primary as well as secondary, for social work intervention, talked about the roles and responsibilities of social work professionals in these settings. The unit also mentioned about the process of finding a suitable job, tips for preparing curriculum vitae, conduct in interview and behaviour expected from a social worker at the work place.

14.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Write the meaning of Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Act
2. Write the meaning Development Worker ?

14.7 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board was established in September 1970 and has been implementing various Housing, Slum Development and Rehabilitation and Resettlement programmes to ameliorate the living conditions of the slum families in Tamil Nadu. The Board initially started its activities in Chennai and its activities were gradually extended to other urban areas of Tamil Nadu since 1984 onwards in phased manner.

2. The Ministry for Public Service and Administration (2007) describes the roles of CDWs as follows:• to assist in the smooth delivery of services by identifying and removing obstacles• to strengthen the social contract between government and communities• to link communities with government services• to pass on communities' concerns and problems to government structures• to support and nurture the increased exchange of information• to improve government–community networks.The above serve to emphasise the significance of government working together with local communities.

14.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Sheafor, B., & Horejsi, C. (2003). Techniques and Guidelines for Social Work Practice. USA: Allyn & Bacon

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- Karlekar, Hiranmay (1996), 'Miles To Go For a Fair Representation', Indian Journal of Gender Studies, vol. 3, no.2, July- December 1996, pp. 275- 281

- Kaushik, Susheela (2000), 'Women and Political Participation' in Niroj Sinha (Ed), Women in Indian Politics, Gyan Publishing House, Delhi ; pp. 53-67.

Websites

http://www . socialworkers . org/pubs/choices/ choices2.asp
http://www . socialworkers . org/pubs/choices/ choices1.asp
http://www.webindia123.com/career/studyabroad/ Canada/ subject.asp?action=Social+Work
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http://www.uq.edu.au/careers/index.html?page= 33999&pid=0
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MODEL QUESTION PAPER

TIME: 3 HOURS MAXIMUM MARKS: 75

<u>34943 A URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT</u>

SECTION – A (10 x 2 = 20 Marks)

Answer All Questions

1) Write the meaning of Urban Community?
2) Give the classifications of City?
3) What is Urbanism?
4) Enlist the approaches of Slums?
5) Bing out any four urban problems?
6) Give the objectives of Urban Community Development
7) What are the principles of UCD?
8) What are the legislations related to urban Development?
9) Write the meaning of HUDCO?
10) What do you mean by TNUDP ?

SECTION – B (5 x 5 = 25 Marks)

Answer All Questions

11. (a) Explain nature of Urban Community ?

(Or)

(b) Explain the meaning and Classifications of City ?

12. (a) Write down the Process of Urbanisation ?

(Or)

(b) Explain the theories of Slums

13. (a) Bring out the cause of Drug Addiction ?

(Or)

(b) Narrate the objectives of Urban Community Development?

(a) Write down the Urban Development Planning?

(Or)

(b) Explain the various structure of Urban Development Agencies ?

14. (a) Elaborate the functions of Housing Board ?

(Or)

(b) Write the functions of Madras Urban Development Project 1 ?

SECTION – C (3 x 10 = 30 Marks)

Answer Any THREE Questions

15. Explain the Trends in Urbanization Process ?
16. Elaborate the City
17. Discuss the role of Voluntary Organization in Urban Community Development ?
18. Bring out the Urban Development Administration
19. Narrate the significance of Social Work in Urban Development Programme ?